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**Birkbeck Sport Business Centre  
Research Paper Series**

**Motivation, segmentation and the mega-tournament  
experience: a study of English Football Tourists at  
World Cup 2014**

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## **Abstract**

Sports tourists make a significant financial and emotional contribution to the success of international sports events yet relatively little is known about their motivations for attending. This study focuses on English Football Tourists travelling to FIFA World Cup 2014 in Brazil, using survey data gathered from 122 respondents in three host cities to undertake an investigation into the factors influencing attendance and identify typologies of attendees. Overall, results support the hypotheses that English Football Tourists are driven by a combination of fan and leisure motivations, event and destination appeal and behavioural and sociodemographic traits, although the interrelationships between these variables are only partially reconciled. Results also reveal a hitherto unexplored phenomenon that local sports culture forms a measurable component of the tournament's appeal. Cluster analysis identifies four typologies of English Football Tourists, each exhibiting specific motivational characteristics and ticket purchasing behaviours. The ramifications of these findings for future World Cup attendance and international sports event spectatorship are discussed, along with the potential logistical and marketing implications for event organisers and National Governing Bodies (NGBs).

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## 1. Introduction

During the past two decades the international tourism market has grown considerably, with sports event tourism representing the fastest growing subsection of this market (Weed, 2009; Hinch & Higham, 2011). Whilst host destinations seek to take advantage of the perceived social, economic and political legacies offered by sports events, incorporating them into place marketing campaigns (Chalip & Colleagues, 2003; 2005; Tomlinson *et al.*, 2011) and leveraging their appeal to “expressly target” international tourists (Funk *et al.*, 2009, p.43), organisers attempt to justify demand for what Smith terms the ‘sports reimagining’ process (2005, p.218) by raising the profile of their events through increasingly sophisticated branding strategies (Getz, 2008). For events to be successful, organisers must look to attract spectators – the archetypal ‘prosumers’ (Shilbury *et al.*, 2003, p.149) without whom events lack commercial viability and media broadcast appeal (Chalip *et al.*, 2003; Smith & Stewart, 2007). It is therefore imperative that organisers understand the motivational complexities that drive sports event attendance.

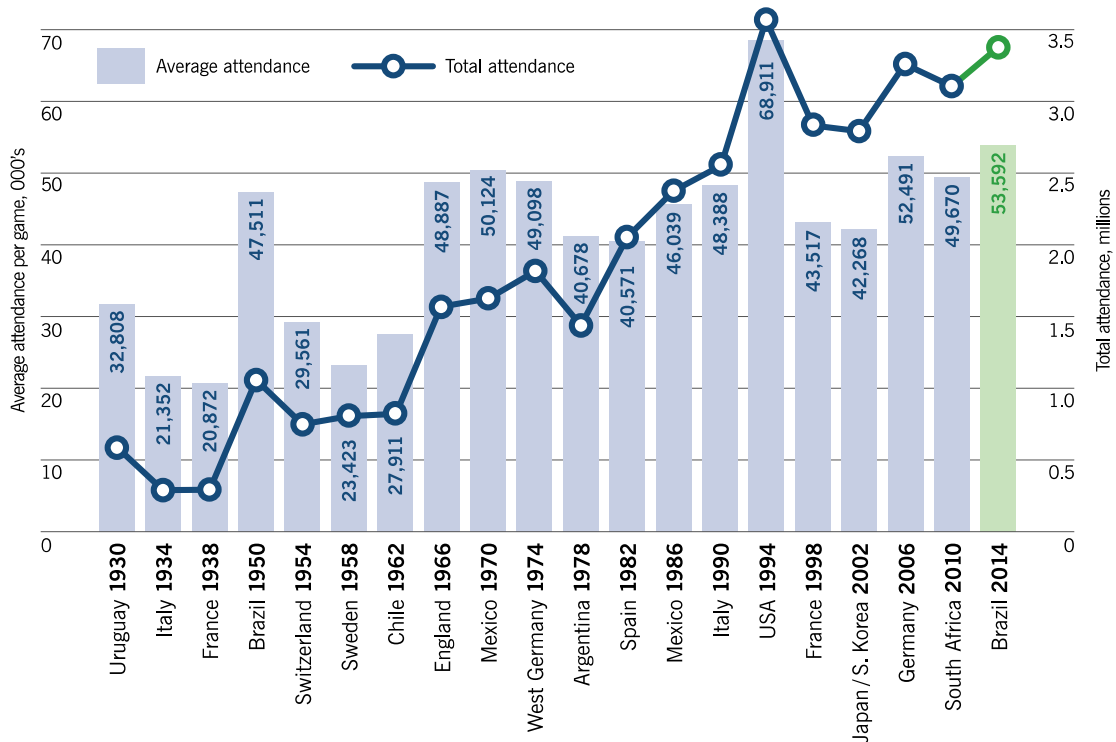
Scholars have sought to engage with attendance behaviours from a number of perspectives including sports fandom (Wann & Colleagues, 1995; 1999; Funk & Colleagues, 2001; 2002), leisure tourism (Gibson, 2004) and event management (Getz, 2008). However, Jones points out that this interdisciplinary approach has resulted in a fragmented body of sports tourism literature lacking “clear linkages” (2008, p.161). In an editorial review of four interrelated sports tourism papers, Jones highlights the benefits of exploring subcultural identity within the motivational process (Davies & Williment, 2008), understanding the role of the host destination in staging events (Florek *et al.*, 2008) and identifying typologies of event attendees (Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008). These potentially lucrative areas of investigation and the insight they provide to event organisers and NGBs underpin the theoretical and practical issues addressed in this study.

### 1.1. Mega-tournaments and the FIFA World Cup

A substantial proportion of sports tourism research has been driven by interest in mega-events, defined by Getz as 'high value' and 'high tourist demand' (2008, p.407). However, caution must be exercised when generalising about mega-events. Getz's assertion that mega-event research has focused overwhelmingly on the Olympic Games is reflected in the volume of literature (MacAloon, 1984; Chalip, 1992; Gibson *et al.*, 2008; Funk *et al.*, 2009; Kaplanidou & Havitz, 2010), with a comparative dearth of studies focusing on multi-city, team-based tournaments such as the World Cups of rugby, cricket and football. The distinction in format between these events and the Olympic Games has been noted by Florek *et al.* (2008, p.202) and is recognised in this study by use of the term 'mega-tournament'.

In the instance of the FIFA World Cup, the paucity of research is surprising. Football's flagship quadrennial mega-tournament, described by organisers as "the most popular single-sporting event on the planet"<sup>1</sup> is a social and economic juggernaut. The global television audience for this summer's World Cup exceeded 3.2 billion,<sup>2</sup> whilst its digital companion, FIFA's 'Global Stadium', attracted one billion unique users.<sup>3</sup> 451 million Facebook users accessed official World Cup content<sup>4</sup> whilst 35.6 million tweets were sent during the tournament's semi-final between Brazil and Germany – a sports event record.<sup>5</sup> In Brazil, published attendance figures for the 64 games totalled 3,429,873<sup>6</sup> making it the second best attended World Cup in history (Fig.1), whilst another 5,154,386 people attended FIFA's official Fan Fest sites.<sup>7</sup> With revenue from broadcast and marketing rights predicted to surpass that generated by World Cup 2010 in South Africa by almost US\$1b, the tournament's estimated US\$2b organisational profit represents more than 40% of FIFA's total budget for 2015–2018.<sup>8,9</sup>

**Fig.1.** World Cup attendances 1930 – 2014.



Source: compiled from FIFA.com: <http://www.fifa.com/worldfootball/statisticsandrecords/tournaments/worldcup/organisation/>, accessed September 2014.

## 1.2. Event organisation and consumer engagement

From a commercial perspective, World Cup 2014 cemented the tournament's reputation as one of the "pinnacles of sport mega-events" (Matos, in Florek *et al.*, 2008, p.201). Yet despite the published figures, fierce criticism of FIFA's ticket pricing and distribution policies,<sup>10</sup> rows of empty seats in 'sold out' stadiums<sup>11</sup> and dubious official attendance figures<sup>12</sup> hinted at the international governing body's failure to engage with its consumer market. Pre-tournament projections indicated that only around 50% of the 3.7 million international visitors to World Cup 2014 would attend matches or official Fan Fest sites,<sup>13</sup> representing a potentially significant opportunity loss for FIFA.

For an organisation currently embroiled in a corruption scandal of global proportions,<sup>14</sup> such matters may be considered inconsequential. Yet in its wake, FIFA may discover that consumer loyalty towards their event cannot be guaranteed. The controversial decision to award World Cup 2022 to Qatar has provoked an overwhelmingly negative reaction, with the future host's

suitability as a tournament destination<sup>15,16</sup> contrasted to Brazil's 'great folk festival'<sup>17</sup> and even prompting former Premier League Chairman Sir Dave Richards to speculate that the threat to Northern Europe's 'go for a pint' culture in the conservative Muslim nation may result in a boycott by fans – a situation he termed 'unthinkable'.<sup>18</sup> For organisers that rely on mass spectatorship to appeal to broadcasters (MacAloon, 1984; Preuss *et al.*, 2007) and levy pouring rights from sponsors<sup>19</sup> (Images 1 & 2), failure to legislate for the sport's subcultural diversity could have ramifications beyond the loss of ticket sales revenue.

### **1.3. Role of the host destination**

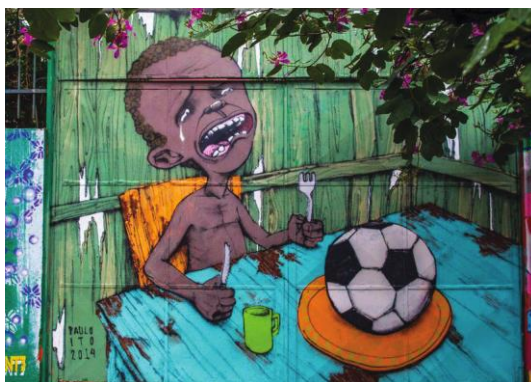
The wider significance of FIFA's conduct is the effect it may have on future tournament bidding procedures. As the open data era demands greater levels of transparency and governments become increasingly aware of the financial risks inherent in hosting major events,<sup>20</sup> profiling attendees into marketable segments capable of providing the host with a financial return is likely to become a key feature of economic impact studies (Lee & Taylor, 2003; Preuss *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, Jones notes that this commercial impetus should extend to fostering local stakeholder support and providing revenue maximisation opportunities for host communities (2008, p.161). Yet in Brazil, where public discontent over the Government's US\$10b spend on event facilities<sup>21</sup> began with mass street protests during the 2013 Confederations Cup, FIFA was compelled to respond to accusations ranging from misappropriated public funds and exorbitant construction costs to sponsors' tax exemptions and the forced displacement of local communities.<sup>22,23</sup> The scars of public resentment (Images 3 & 4) are a reminder that, in future, event organisers should expect the profiles of consumers and the benefits they can bring to the host destination – both as event attendees and repeat visitors – to be examined with increased rigour (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007).



**Images 1 & 2.** FIFA's sponsorship deals with Budweiser and Coca-Cola involve exclusive on-site concessions.



**Images 3 & 4.** Displays of public resentment towards FIFA were evident during World Cup 2014 in Brazil.



A subsidiary issue for organisers involves the role of the destination's 'brand' in marketing events. Strategic co-branding is deemed an effective way to reinforce a host destination's appeal (Chalip & Costa, 2005), but it is not without irony that the 'samba football' culture co-opted by FIFA to market World Cup 2014 was subsequently repressed by banning Brazilian samba drums from inside the stadiums,<sup>24</sup> limiting traditional *acarajé* food vendors outside the venues<sup>25</sup> and adopting an 'aggressive stance' towards unofficial street festivals such as Rio de Janeiro's *Alzirão*.<sup>26</sup> (Images 5 & 6). The feeling amongst ordinary Brazilians is that World Cup 2014 was a "tournament for the Gringos"<sup>27</sup> that did little to represent them or their football culture. Indeed, by facilitating construction of a "herd of white elephant" stadiums,<sup>28</sup> FIFA has helped create the conditions to further erode Brazil's football traditions through the corporatisation of the country's domestic game (Alvito, 2007; Gaffney 2013a; 2013b). With research highlighting the negative impression of "all that marketing stuff" amongst World Cup attendees (Florek *et al.*, 2008,

p.211), the pressing question for tournament organisers is the extent to which perceptions of a destination and its existent sports culture play a role in attracting attendees. It is a question to which, according to Chen & Funk (2010, p.239), academic research has few answers.

**Images 5 & 6.** 'Unofficial' food vendors and traditional street festivals were subject to FIFA's World Cup 'exclusivity' laws.



Source: Mulher Negra e Cia, "Hoje, 25 é dia da Baiana de Acarajé," November 25, 2013, <http://www.mulhernegra.com.br/hoje25-e-dia-da-baiana-de-acaraje/>, accessed November 2014.



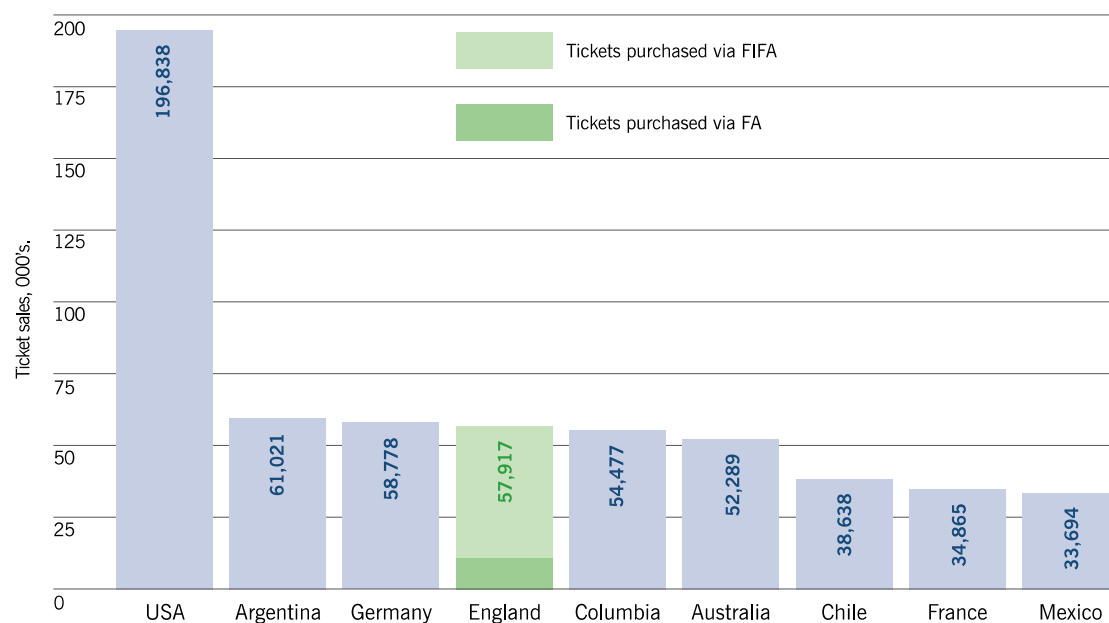
Source: Alzirão, "Fotos: o evento," [Alzirão.com.br](http://www.alzirao.com.br/principal?cat=17), <http://www.alzirao.com.br/principal?cat=17>, accessed November 2014.

#### 1.4. Subcultural identity and attendance motivations

The first step to addressing these knowledge gaps is to better understand the reasons that drive people to attend mega-tournaments. In the instance of football, the deeper academic engagement ushered in by the rapid commercialisation of the game in Europe (Tapp & Clowes, 2000; 2003; Giulianotti, 2002) has not been replicated at an international level and Weed & Bull assert that "there is little known about the behaviour patterns and motivations of non-violent spectators" (2009, p.87). Yet according to Crabbe (2008), the renaissance of the English domestic game has also impacted on the patterns of support associated with the national team. In a rare empirical study of travelling England fans, Crabbe observed six typologies at World Cup 2006 representing an increasingly fragmented subcultural identity, in part encouraged by the "intense dramatalogical experiences" (Frew & McGillivray, 2008, p.181) manifested within the tournament's 'augmented' fan sites (Green, 2001).

There are compelling reasons, both commercially and academically, to explore this heterogeneity amongst England fans. Crabbe's assertion that England supporters are amongst international football's most populous and committed (2003, p.421) was reflected in ticket sales at World Cup 2014, with only the USA, Argentina and Germany delivering more applications than England (Fig.2). One in every fifteen international tickets sold represents a significant tranche of total ticket sales. Yet only 11,000, less than one-quarter of the total, were sold through the Football Association's official England Supporters Club. With FIFA's online World Cup ticket sales portal requesting few personal details,<sup>29</sup> this shift in purchasing habits only compounds Jones' assertion that "one of the limitations in terms of our understanding of travelling fans is that we simply do not know who they are" (2008, p.163). Inevitably, such shortcomings undermine the feedback loop necessary to improve future event organisation and hosting.

**Fig.2.** Total ticket sales by nation for World Cup 2014 (excluding host).



Source: compiled from FIFA.com, 05 June 2014: <http://m.fifa.com/worldcup/news/y=2014/m=6/news=nearly-three-million-tickets-for-brazil-2014-sold-to-date-2355122.html>, accessed September 2014.

This research paper therefore aims to address the 'linkages' that exist between three interrelated concepts: the motivations to attend mega-tournaments such as World Cup 2014; the nature and influence of event and

destination appeal on these motivational drivers; and the manner and extent to which motivations vary between specific subsets of attendees – in this case, English football fans. By adopting this rationale, the study seeks to respond to repeated requests to move from describing the ‘what’ of sports tourist behaviours to explaining the ‘why’ (Gibson, 2004; Downward, 2005; Weed, 2009) and contribute to what Weed & Bull term the “edifices of knowledge” (2009, p.53) required to advance the sports tourism discipline.

### **1.5. Report structure**

The report is divided into seven sequential sections. Further to this introduction, Section 2.0 comprises a dedicated review of the historical development and current academic thinking in sports event tourism, discusses key concepts and contextualises the research methodology within a broader philosophical framework. Section 3.0 defines the research hypotheses, population and sampling frame. Section 4.0 accounts for the development of the data-gathering instrument and critically reviews the data collection process, whilst Section 5.0 presents and analyses the findings within the context of the research hypotheses. Section 6.0 discusses the relevance of the findings to mega-tournament organisation and sports spectatorship, and examines the marketing implications for event organisers and NGBs. Section 7.0 concludes by reflecting on the research and how its limitations may be overcome in future studies.

## 2. Literature review

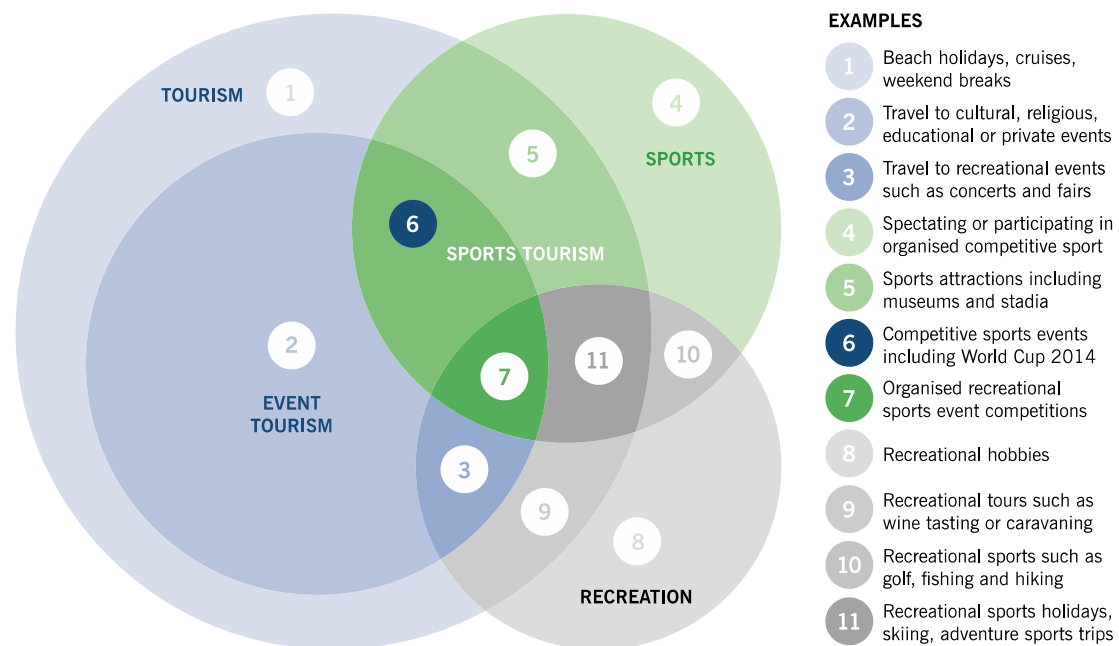
### 2.1. Defining sports event tourism

As befits an emergent field of study the theoretical parameters of sports event tourism are subject to fierce semantic and epistemological debate (Gibson, 1998, 2002, 2004; Hinch & Higham, 2001, 2011; Gammon & Robinson, 2003; Deery *et al.*, 2004; Weed, 2006, 2009; Getz, 2008; Weed & Bull, 2009). Whilst Getz (2008) contends that sports events are a subset of event tourism with little need to be classified as a separate area of enquiry, Gibson has long advocated a tripartite definition based upon tourism for the purposes of sports participation, spectatorship or nostalgia (2002, p.115). Conversely, Weed argues that because sports tourists experience event and destination simultaneously the primacy of 'sport' or 'tourism' in sports tourism research cannot be established and as a result of this "contested terrain" (2009, p.615) the discipline should be regarded as exogenous. Weed's conceptualisation of sports tourism as "the unique interaction of activity, people and place" (Weed & Bull, 2009, p.63) tends to corroborate Crabbe's account of England fans as 'temporal collectivities' during World Cup 2006 (2008, p.434).

However, as Smith & Stewart point out, engaging with a "messy array of variables" (2007, p.175) is unlikely to yield generalisable explanations for an individual's consumption decisions. To advance sports tourism as a substantive discipline, scholars have tended to adopt Gibson's (2004) interdisciplinary research approach, applying structured theory from the "dominant parameters" of sports, leisure and tourism (Hinch & Higham, 2011, p.21) and 'parent' subjects including social psychology and marketing. A revised version of the model introduced by Deery *et al.* (2004), which reconciles events such as World Cup 2014 within an overall 'sports tourism' paradigm (Fig.3), represents an appropriate framework to leverage this approach. Deery *et al.*'s depiction of sports tourism – as consumer motivated attendance at a competitive sports event which generates specific outcomes affecting both the individual and the host – establishes a schema for addressing the objectives outlined in Section 1.5. Moreover, by stressing

the role of the event location in attracting attendees (*ibid.*, p.240), Deery *et al.* inform a semantic solution to the problem of defining the research population, not all of which are assumed to be England ‘fans’ in the popular sense. For the purposes of this study, they will instead be labelled *English Football Tourists*.

**Fig.3.** Revised version of Deery *et al.*'s Sport Tourism Model (2004).



Source: adapted from Deery *et al.*, 2004, p.235–246.

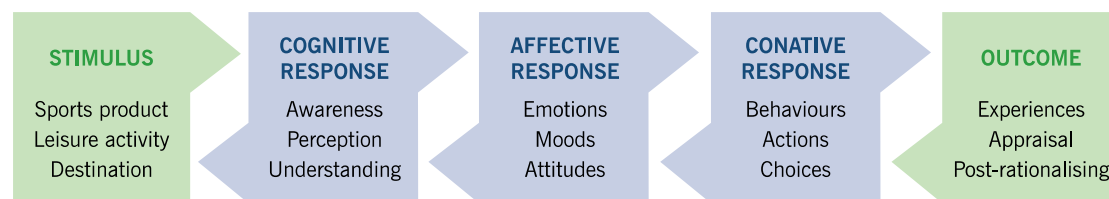
## 2.2. Factors affecting sports event tourism

Within the interdisciplinary framework, Gibson proposes that the “classic reference point” (2004, p.253) for sports tourism theory is Crompton’s (1979) travel motivation continuum: at one end, seven socio-psychological motives – escape, self-exploration, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relations and social interaction; at the other, two cultural motives – education and novelty. The crux of Crompton’s theory, that these psychological forces form the basis of travel decisions, underpin Iso-Ahola’s (1980; 1984) notion that individuals reconcile the personal rewards of freedom and competence in their leisure choices to achieve ‘optimal arousal’: dialectic forces he terms ‘escaping’ and ‘seeking’ (1984, p.109). Adopting the Stimulus-



Cognitive-Response (S-C-R) model of human behaviour (Fig.4), Iso-Ahola demonstrates that seeking and escaping are the internal impulses that drive an individual's response to external stimuli and consequently form the basis for understanding leisure behaviour (1982, p.257–8). The conceptualisation of this impulse–stimuli dynamic as ‘push–pull’ has achieved common currency in the leisure and tourism literature.

**Fig.4.** *Stimulus-Cognitive-Response (S-C-R) model of human behaviour.*



Source: compiled from Burns & Burns, 2012, p.469; Iso-Ahola, 1982; and Gartner, 1994.

Research by Kim & Chalip (2004) into event interest at World Cup 2002 establishes this push–pull dichotomy in the context of sports tourism: push factors – the fan motivations (Wann *et al.*, 1995; Funk *et al.*, 2001), leisure preferences (Beard & Ragheb, 1983), prior attendance behaviours (Wann *et al.*, 2001) and demographic profiles (Zhang *et al.*, 2001) of sports tourists; and pull factors – the attractions associated with the sports event (Chalip, 1992, 1998; MacAloon, 1984). Although Kim & Chalip's *ex ante* study focuses on constraint, its cross-sectional framework and conceptual interrelationships have since been utilised in mixed-methodological, longitudinal and on-site sports tourism research (Florek *et al.*, 2008; Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008; Funk *et al.*, 2009). Notably, Snelgrove *et al.*'s inquiry into attendance at the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletics Championships incorporated a subcultural identity variable that was found to differentiate between 'local', 'casual' and 'committed' attendees, highlighting the potential for psychographic and behavioural segmentation of English Football Tourists akin to that undertaken in domestic sports (Tapp & Clowes, 2000; Ritchie *et al.*, 2002).

However, when analysing these studies two vital complications arise. Firstly, Snelgrove *et al.*'s operationalisation of the sports event as a component of the attendee's entertainment experience (2008, p.171) tends to overlook the

intrinsic 'pull' of its reputation and appeal (Getz, 2008). In the instance of a mega-tournament, this reputation is usually augmented by a wide range of non-sporting attractions encompassing both 'space and place' (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). Although research into sports motivation has tended to downplay the antecedental influence of location (Green & Chalip, 1998; Florek *et al.*, 2008), with Green & Chalip dismissing site and culture as 'peripheral' to the event (p.286), research exploring the influence of destination perception on sports tourism behaviour frequently finds correlations between them (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Funk & Bruun, 2006; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). Crucially, Gibson *et al.* (2008) report that perceptions of China as a tourist destination predict intention to travel to the Beijing Olympic Games. Within the context of studying a mega-tournament, exploration and operationalisation of event and destination 'pulls' are therefore a vital consideration.

Gibson *et al.*'s study follows the customary practice of measuring destination perception by operationalising the concept of Destination Image (DI), defined by Tasci *et al.* as "an interactive system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, visualizations (sic) and intentions toward a destination" (2007, p.200). Although Tasci *et al.* argue that pull factors are not directly analogous to the concept of DI, they concede that the testing criteria used by scholars to analyse the facilitators of a travel destination are often similar (2007, p.196). One such analysis, by Hu & Ritchie, co-opts the term 'destination attractiveness' to represent "the perceived ability of the destination to deliver individual benefits" (1993, p.25). Drawing on Hu & Ritchie's definition, this study modifies the terminology to *destination appeal* to emphasise its 'pull' status, but acknowledges that DI is an associated concept that can inform understanding of the destination appeal construct.

The second complication involves Kim & Chalip's (2004) operationalisation of behavioural and demographic traits as 'push' factors. Iso-Ahola established that personal experiences influence an individual's behaviour in a continuous cycle of 'choice responses' (1980, p.209). This implies that prior experience of a mega-tournament, for example, does not represent a person's desire to attend World Cup 2014 *per se*, but instead affects the nature and strength of



their desire by moderating the stimulus response. Adopting the same rationale, sociodemographic variables including gender, age, education and income can be similarly operationalised (Smith & Stewart, 2007).

Thus, the factors posited to influence sports event attendance can be classified into six broad themes: the push themes of sport and leisure motivation; the pull themes of event and destination appeal and the moderating influences of past behaviours and sociodemographics.

### **2.3. Push factors: sport and leisure motivation**

Defined by Jobber & Fahy as “the process involving needs that set drives in motion to accomplish goals” (2009, p.77), motivation is a core concept in sports tourism research. According to the S-C-R model, motivation gauges the relative strength of a person’s affective attitude towards external stimuli, whether sports product (Hunt *et al.*, 1999), leisure activity (Iso-Ahola, 1980; Beard & Ragheb, 1983) or destination (Gartner, 1994; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). When an individual perceives these stimuli to satisfy their ‘unmet needs’ better than the alternatives and their intrinsic motivations are sufficiently strong to overcome any associated constraints, consumption is more likely to occur (Gartner, *ibid*). Motivation has therefore underpinned the development of instruments to measure attitude and predict consumption behaviour.

#### **2.3.1. Measuring sports motivation**

Scholars have constructed an extensive array of attitudinal scales to test aspects of sports consumer motivation. Notable amongst them, Wann’s (1995) eight-factor Sports Fan Motivational Scale (SFMS), Trail & James’ (2001) nine-factor Motivational Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) and Funk *et al.*’s (2001) ten-factor Sport Interest Inventory (SII). These prototype models have since been refined (Wann, Schrader & Wilson, 1999; Funk, Mahoney & Ridinger, 2002; McDonald, Milne & Hong, 2002) and reconstituted

to measure identification (Wann, Royalty & Rochelle, 2002; Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003), involvement (Funk, Ridinger & Moorman, 2004), loyalty (Koenigstorfer *et al.*, 2010), points of attachment (Trail *et al.*, 2003; Woo *et al.*, 2009), constraint (Trail, Robinson & Kim, 2008; Pritchard, Funk & Alexandris, 2009) and perceived levels of trust towards the sports object (Wann & Polk, 2007; Wu *et al.*, 2012). Modified scales have also been employed to investigate gender (James & Ridinger, 2002; Robinson & Trail, 2005), race (Armstrong, 2002), demographics (Zhang *et al.*, 2004), cross-cultural attendance (Kwon & Trail, 2001), fan typologies (Wann *et al.*, 2008), non-revenue sports (James & Ross, 2004), domestic football (Won & Kitamura, 2007; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012), niche sports including horse racing (Daniels & Norman, 2005), Australian Rules Football (Neale & Funk, 2005) and darts (Wasserberg, 2009) and 'synthesised' sports events (Bouchet *et al.*, 2011).

Despite the numerous adaptations and refinements to these instruments, several problems persist. The scales most widely referenced – notably Wann's SFMS – have been subject to criticism for their questionable construct validity and over-reliance on US-centric, collegiate sampling (Trail & James, 2001), whilst in the context of one-off sports events they remain underdeveloped (Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008, p.166). Moreover, although the scales share most of the core constructs of sports motivation (Smith & Stewart, 2007, p.158), for sports tourism research the social, intellectual and escape constructs must be adapted to encompass the overall trip experience. One of the challenges of this review is therefore to identify the constructs that engage exclusively and meaningfully with the sport on offer at World Cup 2014. To this end, Smith & Stewart make a useful distinction between the concepts which measure internal psychology: eustress, aesthetic pleasure and entertainment; and those which measure identification with the sport object: vicarious achievement and identification. Whilst psychological factors typically address the pleasure derived from sports 'spectating', sport object interaction is generally accepted to engage with the strength of an individual's 'fandom' (Wann, 2001).

### **2.3.2. Psychological spectator motivations**

Eustress is the positive physiological arousal an individual experiences when their emotions are stimulated in a controlled environment. Wann *et al.* (1999; 2008) report that eustress tends to be a stronger motivational factor in aggressive team sports such as football, whilst Daniels & Norman (2005) report positive correlations between eustress and higher levels of identification. Hall *et al.* (2010) opine that 'emotional arousal' is amongst the most significant antecedents of sports event attendance, although their definition of 'emotion' as 'stimulating, satisfying or stirring' is nebulous (2010, p.333). Nonetheless, Kim & Chalip (2004) identify a significant relationship between eustress and World Cup event interest that is presupposed to influence attendance motivation.

Aesthetic pleasure is defined by Wann as an appreciation of the "excellence, beauty, or creativity" of a sporting performance (1995, p.378), and its relationship to the technical performances and skilful passages of play which feature in football has been widely reported (Trail & James, 2001; Won & Kitamura, 2007). Intuitively, Smith & Stewart's claim that the 'I-was-there' moments in sport are the ultimate realisation of aesthetic pleasure (2007, p.160) should correspond closely to attending a 'once-in-a-lifetime' World Cup tournament in Brazil.

Entertainment, in which sports serve primarily as recreation, has been cited as the most common fan motivation (Chen, 2010, p.279). However, in Kim & Chalip's (2004) study this construct was found to be multi-dimensional, with Gibson *et al.* (2003) pointing out that entertainment in a sports tourism setting may extend to organising and preparing for the trip and include the general atmosphere surrounding the event itself. It is also likely to incorporate the mediated forms of entertainment derived from fan zones and other ancillary sites (Frew & McGillivray, 2008). In the context of a mega-tournament, entertainment is therefore better understood in terms of the overall enjoyment provided by the sport itself (Funk *et al.*, 2001; 2002).

### **2.3.3. Interaction with the sport object**

Vicarious achievement, or self-esteem (Wann, 1995), is the sense of accomplishment derived from associating with a successful sports person or team and forms the crux of an individual's desire to build and maintain a positive self-concept (*ibid.*). Counterintuitively, several sports event studies have revealed a negative correlation between vicarious achievement and event interest (Funk *et al.*, 2001; Kim & Chalip, 2004). Kim & Chalip conclude that individuals who are prone to seeking vicarious achievement may eschew the event if 'their' team is expected to perform poorly (2004, p.704). However, it could also be assumed that as the desire to associate with a specific team strengthens, the importance attached to the event itself becomes increasingly peripheral.

Vicarious achievement can be regarded as an antecedent of team identification (Trail *et al.*, 2003; Robinson & Trail, 2005). Team identification refers to the sense of 'in-group' belonging derived from internalising the knowledge, values and beliefs associated with supporting a particular team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Heere & James, 2007). The more closely the individual identifies with 'their' team, the more deeply it is wrought into their self-concept and the more liable they are to indulge in bouts of subcultural expression (Green, 2001; Funk & James, 2006). Highly identified supporters are less likely to reduce their association with the team (Koenigstorfer, 2010) or engage in BIRGing (Basking in Reflected Glory) and CORFing (Cutting off Reflected Failure) behaviours (Cialdini *et al.*, 1976; Snyder *et al.*, 1986; Hunt *et al.*, 1999). Rather, they report more positive expectations for team performances, greater propensity to spend time and money following the team and are more favourably disposed to their fellow supporters (Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Polk, 2007). Domestically, this "identity system" (Koenigstorfer *et al.*, 2010, p.652) has been operationalised to explore types of enduring psychological connection including involvement (Funk *et al.*, 2004), attachment (Alexandris & Tsotsou, 2012) commitment (Green, 2001) and loyalty (Koenigstorfer, 2010). However, it is unclear how these constructs relate to fandom at mega-tournaments: partly because such events are

periodic in nature and partly because the enduring connection to a national team is assumed to assimilate aspects of national identity.

#### **2.3.4. English Football Tourists and national identity**

Variations in affective and conative attitudes amongst sports spectators of different nationalities have been widely reported (Kwon & Trail, 2001; Won & Kitamura, 2007) and the potential for English Football Tourists to exhibit traits borne of a particular sense of national identity is also well documented (Bishop & Jaworski, 2003; Crabbe, 2003). Since the 1970's, travelling English fans have been regarded as the originators and principle protagonists of international football hooliganism – dubbed the 'English disease' (Frosdick & Marsh, 2005, p.19) – with studies tending to focus upon violent and antisocial behaviour (Weed, 2001; Stott *et al.*, 2001; 2006). However, this 'dysfunctional' fandom represents the extreme end of an identification spectrum (Hunt *et al.*, 1999) where 'normality' is played out through a mosaic of rituals including donning colours, hanging flags, singing and chanting (Chun *et al.*, 2004; Derbaix & Decrop, 2011). Such rituals, based around "collective representation" (Wann *et al.*, 2001, p.187), are posited to engender an idiosyncratically 'English' supporter subculture through which the self-identity of its members is derived (Green, 1991).

Although subcultural identity has been investigated in the context of international sports events (Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008), a distinction must be drawn between the sporting subculture conceptualised by Snelgrove and the subcultural identity derived from supporting a team. This distinction is informed by research into multiple points of attachment amongst collegiate sports students (Robinson & Trail, 2005; Kwon *et al.*, 2005), and is summarised by Woo *et al.*'s (2009) attachment model which distils the phenomenon into binary components: 'sport identification' – engendered by sport and level, and 'organisational identification' – engendered by team, coach, players and institution. However, it is proposed that amongst English Football Tourists, attachment should arise not only from sport and

organisational (team) identification, but also from 'national identification' (Funk *et al.*, 2001; Beerli & Martin, 2004).

### **2.3.5. Measuring leisure motivation**

The body of leisure and tourism literature reveals broad variations in the definitions and measurement instruments used to investigate leisure motivation, which is predictable given the infinite variety of contexts in which studies take place (Funk & Bruun, 2006). From within the mélange, a seminal scale created by Beard & Ragheb (1983) identifies four dimensions of leisure motivation: intellectual, social, competence-mastery and stimulus avoidance. Drawing upon values conceptualised by Crompton (1979), the scale has proven to be 'surprisingly' stable (Ryan & Glendon, 1998, p.172) and, crucially, robust when co-opted for sports tourism research (Kim & Chalip, 2004; Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008). With the competence-mastery component of the scale deemed inappropriate for measuring sports spectatorship, three constructs are presumed to influence mega-tournament attendance: escape, social and intellectual motivations.

Escape, as one of the two dialectical forces influencing leisure choices (Iso-Ahola, 1984), has been appropriated as something of a catch-all. Beard & Ragheb regard escape as avoidance: "it is the need for some individuals to avoid social contacts, so seek solitude and calm conditions; for others it is to rest and unwind themselves" (1983, p.225). Conversely, Weed (2001) presents escape as the dissolution of boundaries that leads to loss of control, aggression and violence. Whilst this argument has intuitive appeal for studying English Football Tourists, more recent empirical research into fan behaviour has revealed an increasingly complex psychological interplay involving travelling fans, local supporters and the police (Stott *et al.*, 2001; 2006). Rather, the proposition that travel to sports events engenders freedom from 'real life' social roles, bringing about a state of so-called 'liminality' through which alternative rituals are played out (Turner, in MacAloon, 1984,

p.266), has received extensive support in the sports literature (Getz, 2008; Crabbe, 2008; Decrop & Derbaix, 2009).

The social and interpersonal opportunities afforded by recreational travel have long been recognised (Iso-Ahola, 1983; Beard & Ragheb, 1983), but in a sports tourism context the permutations are complex. Mega-tournaments offer opportunities to socialise independently, nurture subcultural relationships via supporter groups, convene with friends, network, or any combination of these. Spending time with family is another form of socialising (Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001), but is clearly dependent on circumstance. Yet despite a myriad of contexts, it is posited that the social motivations of event attendees can be treated as universal rather than subculturally specific. The distinction drawn by Beard & Ragheb between an individual's desire to be social and their need for others' esteem draws close parallels with the social interaction (Funk *et al.*, 2002; Trail & James, 2001) and group affiliation (Wann, 1995; McDonald *et al.*, 2002) found in sports research, whilst Iso-Ahola exploits Cialdini *et al.*'s concept of BIRGing to illustrate how overseas travel may be used to boost self-esteem (1983, p.48). These insights underpin the rationale adopted by this paper that interpersonal motivations may be explored using a unified 'social' construct.

By extension, this rationale also applies to the third key driver of leisure motivation – the desire to pursue mentally challenging experiences. Whilst this motive encompasses an individual's desire to acquire sporting knowledge (Trail & James, 2001), in a sports tourism context it may also comprise discovering a particular region, visiting a specific site or embarking on a nostalgia or heritage tour (Gibson, 2004, p.252–3). Moreover, in the broader context of leisure tourism, scholars have identified relationships between the desire to seek knowledge and the opportunities provided by the destination for cultural engagement (Oh *et al.*, 1995; Hanquin & Lam, 1999).

## **2.4. Pull factors: event and destination appeal**

'Pull' factors are the external stimuli that induce motivational arousal and lead to conative decision-making (Gartner, 1994; Beerli & Martin, 2004). In the case of a sports tourism 'product' the stimuli will comprise a mix of advertising and brand awareness, promotional information, public relations, autonomous media output, active information searches, word-of-mouth and personal experience. Together these form the product image. The more successfully the overall product image forms an expectation that the product will meet the psychological and sociocultural needs of the consumer, the more successful it will be in attracting them (Gartner, 1994; Chalip & Costa, 2005).

Sports management has traditionally bisected sports events into core product and peripheral features (Byon *et al.*, 2013), the latter incorporating the design, facilities, reputation and service qualities of the 'sportscape' (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Westerbeek & Shilbury, 2003). However, sports tourism research tends to reconcile the sportscape within the overall 'event' experience and treat this experience as partitionable from the destination location. Although recent studies have sought to reconcile the distinction (Kaplanidou, 2007; Kaplanidou & Havitz, 2010), for operationalisation purposes the twin concepts of event and destination appeal are deemed applicable to this study.

### **2.4.1. Event appeal**

Events can be considered as leisure opportunities that offer a range of satisfiers to the motivators that drive attendance. Rooney (1998) proposes that a mega-event's sporting context, its prestige and international significance, provision for social engagement and "augmentations" (Green, 1991) are all common types of satisfiers. The first of these, sporting context, is regarded as the fundamental component of a mega-tournament's attraction, with Crabbe depicting World Cup 2006 as "a kind of 'planet football'" (2008, p.431) that allowed attendees to engage with the icons, apparel and other subcultural components of the sport.



Accordingly, mega-tournaments demand that attendees must 'be there' to fully appreciate the experience. As Getz observes: "if you miss it, it's a lost opportunity" (2008, p.404). Live events are occasions to revel in the 'carnavalesque' (Crabbe, 2008, p.431), described by MacAloon as "...a certain mood, atmosphere or ethos of diffuse and unpredictable effervescence, conviviality, sociability and pleasure" (1989, p.6–21). Yet MacAloon's depiction of event festivities as a spontaneous 'bricolage' of incidences (*ibid.*) is changing as organisers commercialise ancillary sites in an attempt to harness the live event atmosphere (Frew & McGillivray, 2008; Bouchet *et al.*, 2011). Although research into motivational response at these 'virtual' locations remains embryonic, it is clear they afford structured opportunities to meet the consumption criteria of "*how* [they] did it, *how adventurous* it was and *what images* [they] have to *prove it*" (Frew & McGillivray, 2008, p.196) without committing to the stadium experience.

#### **2.4.2. Destination appeal**

Ignored within Kim & Chalip's (2004) study, the 'pull' of the destination has nevertheless been an important locus of investigation in Chalip's other work (Chalip & Colleagues, 2003; 2004) and the impact of DI on intention to attend receives some support in the sports tourism literature (Gibson *et al.*, 2008; Kaplanidou *et al.*, 2012). However, Tasci *et al.* (2007) point out that generalising the findings of these studies is often infeasible due to the multifarious operationalisations of the DI construct. Having drawn heavily on Hu & Ritchie's tourist destination attributes (1993, p.28), Chen & Funk refer to "the abstractness and multi-dimensionality of the construct" that impacted on their 16-attribute DI scale investigating travel behaviour at the European Athletics Championships in Gothenburg. Despite their claims to the contrary, the scale is not applicable – particularly to national destinations – without significant revision.

As a consequence, the uniqueness of each destination demands specific attention. Yet the repository of academic literature engaging with Brazil as an international destination is sparse:<sup>30</sup> idealised notions of Brazilian music (Goldschmitt, 2011), sexuality and sex tourism (Parker, 2009; Bandyopadhyay & Nascimento, 2010), *favela* (slum) tours (Freire-Medeiros, 2011), Carnival (Linger, 1992), *briga*, or street violence (*ibid.*) and the politics of Brazilian football (Alvito, 2007; Dubal, 2010; Gaffney, 2013a; 2013b). Little contemporary research into the country's tourist industry exists. Tomlinson *et al.*'s critique of Brazil's tourist appeal in the build-up to World Cup 2014 suggests that existing stereotypes "portray a country full of party revellers or extreme violence and poverty" (2011, p.44). Consequently, it is concluded that no suitable instrument exists for assessing Brazil's appeal as a host destination.

#### **2.4.3. Relationship between event appeal, destination appeal and motivation**

The relative importance of the destination's appeal in relation to the event is disputed. It has been argued that whilst events such as the London Marathon can be classified on the basis of their 'place attachment' (Getz, 2008), travel to one-off events is driven primarily by interest in the sport rather than the destination (Green & Chalip, 1998; Kaplanidou, 2007; Filo *et al.*, 2011). Yet mega-events routinely leverage the host destination's 'brand' for marketing and promotional purposes (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Chalip & Costa, 2005). Given Brazil's reputation for 'samba football', Kaplanidou & Havitz's contention that sports attractions that "blend naturally" with the host may increase the destination's significance to attendees (2010, p.356) appears pertinent.

Research into this event-destination relationship has yielded inconsistent results. A mutually positive relationship between Event Image (EI) and DI is reported by Kaplanidou *et al.* (2012), supporting Kim & Chalip's (2004) conclusion that interest in the destination's culture increases desire to attend

an event. However, this challenges previous research findings that DI does not impact on EI (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). In a study of Olympic sports tourists at the 2004 Games, Kaplanidou (2007) also refutes the theory that EI and DI are affected by trip purpose – results that have been erroneously interpreted by King *et al.* (2012, p.2) – yet Kaplanidou & Havitz (2010) report that Olympic sports tourists whose primary purpose was not to attend the event exhibited higher levels of situational pleasure perception with the destination.

Considered holistically, Kaplanidou's body of Olympic-based research does not provide a singular rationale for predicting the effect of event and destination appeal on English Football Tourists. However, Florek *et al.* (2008), using a longitudinal approach to track destination image change at World Cup 2006 in Germany, report that two-thirds of the highly identified subject group would have travelled to any other European country to attend the event. Despite the small sample size ( $n=44$ ), this finding suggests that attendees exhibiting higher levels of sports motivation should be more strongly attracted to the event. This being the case, it can be assumed that when sports motivations are lower, increased levels of leisure motivation will be required to drive attendees to the event. Referring back to the proven push–pull relationship between leisure motivations and destination attractions (Gibson *et al.*, 2008; Chen & Funk, 2010), it should therefore follow that stronger destination appeal should lead to higher levels of leisure motivation. These assumptions, which extend Kim & Chalip's (2004, p.697) push–pull rationale, form the basis of hypothesis B.

## **2.5. Behavioural and sociodemographic variables**

### **2.5.1. *Prior destination and travel experience***

Two interrelated behavioural factors are demonstrated to moderate destination appeal: past experience with the destination and the individual's propensity to seek novelty. In tourism research, prior visitation has long been

demonstrated to engender greater levels of “familiarity” (Baloglu, 2001; Hu & Ritchie, 1993), in turn promoting more realistic and positive images of a destination (Milman & Pizam, 1995) that can increase revisit intention (Mazursky, 1989). Further, the familiarity phenomenon is not destination specific. Pearce’s ‘Travel Career Ladder’ (TCL) depicts how experienced travellers’ motivations ‘ascend’ beyond basic physiological and security needs to embrace belongingness, self-esteem and, ultimately, self-actualisation (1988, p.31). Although Pearce’s TCL is subject to ongoing revision (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009, p.259), the basic tenet that travel experiences affect motivation is widely supported. Lepp & Gibson report correlatory findings using Cohen’s tourist role typologies: demonstrating that experienced travellers are less risk averse to aspects of international travel including health, terrorism and local foods (2003) and more likely to be ‘sensation seekers’ who thrive on travel to ‘riskier’ locations (2008). It is therefore posited that English Football Tourists with generic and destination-specific travel experience will have a greater desire and willingness to travel to Brazil.

### ***2.5.2. Previous travel to World Cups and international sports events***

Getz draws on Pearce’s TCL to propose that an ‘event travel career’ (2008, p.416), in which progressive event attendance leads to an individual seeking ‘higher order’ competitions, should characterise attendees. This concept, whilst intuitively appealing, is empirically unsupported. In two studies measuring the impact of prior attendance on intentions to revisit a one-off sports event, Kaplanidou (2007) and Kaplanidou & Vogt (2007) fail to find a direct relationship and conclude that: “the contribution of past behaviour in predicting future outcomes within the sport tourism context is questionable” (2012, p.483). Yet these findings contradict those from which Kaplanidou & Vogt’s hypotheses were drawn – notably the research of Hagger *et al.* (2002) and Cunningham & Kwon (2003). The latter applied Theory of Planned Behaviour to collegiate hockey games and found that prior attendance works ‘in concert’ with attitudes and subjective norms to predict intention to attend. Although the applicability of Cunningham & Kwon’s findings to large-scale tournaments

is unclear, the possibility of prior sports tourism experiences moderating attendees' event motivations cannot be discounted within this research.

### **2.5.3. Behavioural loyalty**

Football supporters have been described as exhibiting 'blind' brand loyalty (Dubal, 2010, p.130) and the likelihood of loyal fans devoting more time and resources to following their team has been comprehensively investigated (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Giulianotti, 2002; Tapp, 2003; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). Indeed, Tapp suggests that loyalty regularly transcends an individual's satisfaction levels and may even become independent of the team to focus "inwards to oneself" (2003, p.211), incorporating an individual's sense of duty or stoicism in adversity. Whilst conative dimensions of loyalty have not been investigated in the context of international football, evidence suggests that English Football Tourists with a history of following the national team 'home and away' should be more strongly drawn to the event. Therefore, along with previous travel and sports tourism behaviours this moderating variable forms the basis of hypothesis C.

### **2.5.4. Sociodemographic variables**

Gender, age, life stage, income and social class form a routine component of sports segmentation strategy (Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008). However, whilst Gibson asserts that the 'average' sports tourist is "male, white and middle class" (2004, p.255), sociodemographic variables are found to predict game attendance in variable ways (Zhang *et al.*, 2001; 2004). Gender is demonstrated to affect spectatorship both by sport type and athlete gender (Funk & Colleagues, 2001; 2002), with men more likely to consume sports for reasons of eustress, aesthetics and self-esteem and women for family-related reasons (Wann *et al.*, 1995; 1999; Dietz-Uhler *et al.*, 2000). It has also been argued that team identification is higher amongst men (James & Ridinger, 2002). Whilst there is little evidence that gender directly influences intent to travel to mega-tournaments, Jordan & Gibson's study of solo women travellers

found that women internalise “mental maps of the world” to help them delineate safer, culturally appropriate destinations (in Gibson *et al.*, 2008, p.430).

Similarly, whilst Wann (1995) contends that age is negatively correlated to group affiliation and Kim & Chalip (2004) find that youth increases the desire to attend the World Cup, Snelgrove *et al.*'s claim that sport is the “socially considered... choice for younger consumers” (2008, p.169) is not reflected in the demographics of identified football fans (Tapp & Clowes, 2003) or ‘grey’ rugby union tourists (Davies & Williment, 2008). These opposing views can be partially reconciled by considering the influence of life stage, with youngsters less likely to be burdened with the “complicated lives” of those with families (Tapp, 2003, p.209) but more likely to be financially constrained, impacting on their ability to attend (Kim & Chalip, 2004). Indeed, whilst Hall *et al.* hypothesise that the motivation to ‘escape’ may increase during times of economic hardship (2010, p.333), it seems inevitable – given the expense involved – that financial resources will have the greatest sociodemographic impact on segmentation patterns at World Cup 2014.

## **2.6. Football tourist typologies**

The past two decades has seen significant interest in football supporters as segmentable consumers (Tapp & Clowes, 2000; Kim *et al.*, 2007; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). Seminal research by Tapp & Clowes demonstrates complex patterns of psychographic and behavioural consumption that can be understood in terms of targetable supporter typologies. Amongst them ‘Fanatics’, highly partisan and behaviourally loyal; ‘Carefree Casuals’, who regard ‘their’ team as an entertainment option rather than part of their self image; ‘Committed Casuals’ who “value variety and choice” (p.1264) but believe a winning team is more important than an entertaining game; and ‘Repertoire Fans’, “multiple brand users” who regularly attend matches not involving ‘their’ team (p.1258). Meanwhile, in a study of Super 12 Rugby Union matches, Ritchie *et al.* (2002) profiled attendee typologies based on travel purpose and noted differences in destination-

based behaviour, with 'casual' attendees staying longer and spending more than 'avid' or 'frequent' fans.

Given the ticket buying behaviours of English Football Tourists attending World Cup 2014, there is intuitive appeal that similar typologies can be identified. Crabbe's (2008) interactionist research into England fans at World Cup 2006 in Germany observed six 'types' of fans, labelled 'Corporates', 'Barmy Army', 'Survivalists', 'Grafters', 'Shirts' and 'Internationalists'. Crabbe's description of Shirts as "Loyal and dependable 'customers' with tickets and travel obtained through orthodox channels" (2008, p.434) analogises Tapp & Clowes' 'Fanatics', whilst the Internationalists who "don't mind which matches they see" (*ibid.*) display behavioural similarities to Repertoire Fans. No attempt has ever been made to support Crabbe's research using quantitative methodologies and as a consequence his findings remain unsubstantiated. However, Kim *et al.*'s (2007) multi-variable analysis of South Korea's K-League, which successfully segmented football spectator profiles using cluster analysis and cross-tabulation techniques, reaffirms the potential for using quantitative methods to segment sports tourists and provides an appropriate methodology for addressing hypotheses D & E.

## **2.7. Theoretical and methodological approaches**

A review of the literature reveals a predomination of deductive research models designed to gather statistical facts, diagnose and interpret aspects of consumer behaviour, make inferences beyond the immediate research setting and discuss the relevance of these inferences to potential marketing strategies. This reductionist approach is not without its critics. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2008) argue that positivist 'labels' are being recycled without adequately accounting for a multiplicity of circumstances, whilst calls for researchers to employ mixed-methodological techniques (Gibson, 2004; Downward, 2005; Weed, 2009) suggest that increasingly interpretive epistemological approaches are being sought to overcome what Easterby-

Smith *et al.* term the “assumed difficulty of gaining direct access to ‘reality’” (2008, p.63).

It is clear from the aggregated typologies of Tapp & Clowes (2000) that fusing multiple methodologies is a valuable and relevant procedure in sports research. Accordingly, a research design that employs discourse analysis to underpin a quantitative cross-sectional ‘snapshot’ (Filo *et al.*, 2011, p.18), and cluster analysis – regarded as an essentially inductive technique (Punj & Stewart, 1983) – to make inferences about the quantitative data, is deemed valid and appropriate. Moreover, by triangulating results with the constructionist typologies of existing studies (Tapp & Clowes, 2000; Tapp, 2003; Crabbe, 2008), this approach makes implicit ontological assumptions about the multitudinous nature of ‘truth’ in sports tourism research.

Whilst positivists may lament the lack of generalisability in such methods, the counterclaim is that the sheer variety of contexts in which studies take place compromises even the most rigorous deductive methodology. As a consequence, Smith & Stewart suggest that it is vital to consider the body of sports tourism literature as “a collective” (2007, p.176). By adopting a relativist approach that assumes internal validity can be strengthened by combining deductive and inductive techniques, triangulating evidence and establishing Jones’ “clear linkages” (*op.cit.*), it is intended for this research to add to that ‘collective’ in a clear and meaningful way.



### **3. Research parameters**

#### **3.1. Primary research question**

In what ways do motivational, behavioural and sociodemographic factors influence English Football Tourists to attend mega-tournaments such as World Cup 2014?

#### **3.2. Research hypotheses**

**Hypothesis A.** English Football Tourists will be positively influenced to attend World Cup 2014 by a combination of ‘push’ factors (sport and leisure motivation) and ‘pull’ factors (event and destination appeal).

**Hypothesis B.** Higher levels of sport motivation amongst English Football Tourists will be a function of increased event appeal, whilst higher levels of leisure motivation will be a function of increased destination appeal.

**Hypothesis C.** Previous travel to Brazil and the propensity to visit new destinations will positively moderate the relationship between leisure motivation and destination appeal, whilst previous World Cup and international sports event attendance and following England ‘home and away’ will positively moderate the relationship between sport motivation and event appeal.

**Hypothesis D.** The motivational and behavioural factors tested in hypotheses A–C, when combined with sociodemographic variables, will produce meaningful and transferable typologies of English Football Tourists.

**Hypothesis E.** The English Football Tourist typologies identified in hypothesis D will exhibit definable World Cup 2014 ticket purchasing patterns.

### **3.3. Population**

Population was defined as 'English Football Tourists' being 'all English adults visiting Brazil to attend World Cup 2014', where:

- 'English' was anyone considering themselves to be English by birth or residency;
- 'Adult' was anybody over the age of 18;
- 'Visitor to Brazil' was anyone travelling to Brazil from outside its borders who are not normally resident in Brazil; and
- 'To attend' was the deliberate decision to experience the tournament by attending World Cup matches, official FIFA Fan Fest sites, civic spaces or other public venues in one or more of the tournament's 12 host cities.

### **3.4. Sample size**

A minimum population size of 20,000 was estimated by dividing FIFA's official English ticket quota (57,917)<sup>31</sup> by an average four tickets per person,<sup>32</sup> and adding the FA's published travelling fan figures (c5,000).<sup>33</sup> Official figures published by the UK Government subsequently ratified this population estimate.<sup>34</sup> Based on the population estimate, with  $\pm 5\%$  confidence interval at the 95% level (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.230), the optimum sample size was set at 377.

## **4. Methodology**

### **4.1. Research design and planning**

Burns & Burns highlight the need to “generate reliable and valid data from a high proportion of the sample within a reasonable time period at minimal cost” (2012, p.488). In-person methods allow researchers to maximise response rates and increase representativeness without the need to offer incentives for participation (de Vaus, 2002; Bourque & Fielder, 2003). They also enable non-responses to be mediated and logged. It was therefore decided to target concentrated numbers of respondents at multiple venues using a semi-supervised survey strategy (Bourque & Fielder, 2003, p.6). Although face-to-face methods are deemed financially intensive (de Vaus, 2002, p.131), the data gathering process would benefit from an existing arrangement to attend World Cup 2014 in Brazil – mitigating much of the cost and taking advantage of personal preparations within the development phase.

#### **4.1.1 Access to the sample**

An initial proposal to distribute surveys inside the stadiums, replicating a methodology widely used in previous fan-based studies (Funk *et al.*, 2001; Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008) was dismissed as impractical, given the difficulty of gaining accreditation from FIFA. It was also expected to yield an imprecise sample based purely on respondents attending matches. It was therefore planned to utilise FIFA’s official Fan Fest sites as reservoirs for data collection. The sites, located in each of the 12 host cities (Fig.5), offered open access to football tourists during the event.<sup>35</sup> Experience of these “entertaining, family-friendly”<sup>36</sup> sites at previous tournaments indicated that they would attract the target sample and assuage the difficulties inherent in distributing survey material to England supporters (Stott *et al.*, 2001, p.364).

Data collections were planned in four host cities: Salvador, São Paulo, Recife and Natal; with each collection spread over a two-day period. These locations

were later revised (see Fig.5). The choice of cities was based upon a combination of researcher itinerary, geographical spread and, crucially, England's match schedule.<sup>37</sup> Whilst it could be argued that the researcher's itinerary represented a form of convenience sampling (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.203), the itinerary was in itself a consequence of FIFA's random ticketing process.<sup>38</sup> The net effect of the sampling methodology was therefore posited to be quasi-stratification, with respondents at multiple locations 'rounding out' the overall representativeness of English Football Tourists without compromising the generalisability of the results (de Vaus, 2002; Hart, 2005).

**Fig.5.** World Cup 2014 host cities and data gathering venues.



Source: adapted from 'Map of Brazil' by FreeVectorMaps.com.

## **4.2. Test instrument development**

To fulfil the research objectives five categories of data were sought: fan and leisure motivations, perceived event and destination appeal, self-reported travel and prior event attendance behaviours, demographic data and ticket purchase details. According to Funk *et al.* a 30-item scale takes 10 minutes to complete (2001, p.291). Therefore, despite the benefits of open-ended questions for soliciting spontaneous responses (Oppenheim, 1992, p.113), it was decided that closed questions would reduce the time involved and hone responses within the potentially distracting delivery environment. All questions were constructed using a standard tick box format (Gray, 2014).

### **4.2.1. Scale development**

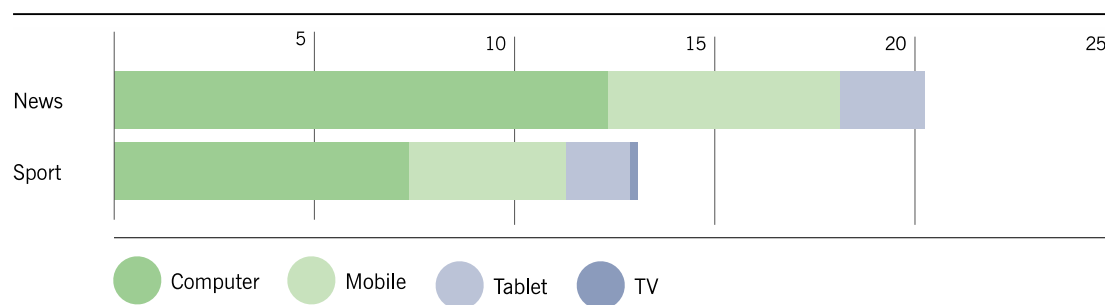
Using Kim & Chalip's (2004) model as a basis for adaption (Bourque & Fielder, 2003, p.36), attitudinal scales were developed by modifying items from previous studies (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Trail & James, 2001; Funk *et al.*, 2001; Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008; Funk *et al.*, 2009). However, Kim & Chalip's use of the subscale "support national team" was deemed not to engage with the nuances of sport motivation. Given the criticisms of Wann's SFMS, six three-item factors measuring *eustress*, *aesthetic appreciation*, *fan of football*, *vicarious achievement*, *team identification* and *national pride* were instead adapted from Trail & James' (2001) MSSC and Funk *et al.*'s (2001) SII. Three leisure motivation factors were drawn from Snelgrove *et al.* (2008) to measure *escape*, *intellectual stimulation* and *social interaction*. These constructs had been developed from a short form of Beard & Ragheb's (1983) frequently validated Leisure Motivation Scale. The *event appeal* scale was a modified version of Funk *et al.*'s (2009) Olympic Event Interest scale that had been rigorously pre-tested and found to be internally reliable ( $\alpha=0.77$ ).

### **4.2.2. Constructing the destination scale**

To explore Brazil's destination appeal a structured media review was undertaken. Autonomous media is one of four forces<sup>39</sup> demonstrated to inform

DI (Gartner, 1994) and is deemed crucial to expectation formation (Kaplanidou, 2007, p.168). Owing to limitations of time and resources, only one media outlet was chosen for analysis – BBC news and sport online. This choice was based on the disproportionately high reach of its online readership<sup>40</sup> (Fig.6) and the relative levels of accuracy and unbiasedness in its coverage.<sup>41</sup> However, a range of factors including variations in regional readership,<sup>42</sup> the predomination of television as a news platform<sup>43</sup> and the impact of online alternatives<sup>44</sup> fell beyond the scope of this review, as did the influence of three other image-forming factors. It was also accepted that any ‘iterative’ exercise involves degrees of what Ricoeur terms ‘distanciation’ between author and reader (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, p.75), thereby reinforcing the subjective nature of the exercise.

**Fig.6.** Weekly unique browsers of BBC Online products by device (millions).



Source: adapted from Dominic Ponsford, "Report which reveals the enormous reach of BBC News online may alarm regional publishers," *Press Gazette*, May 21, 2013, <http://www.pressgazette.co.uk/content/report-which-reveals-enormous-reach-bbc-news-online-may-alarm-regional-publishers>, accessed March 2014.

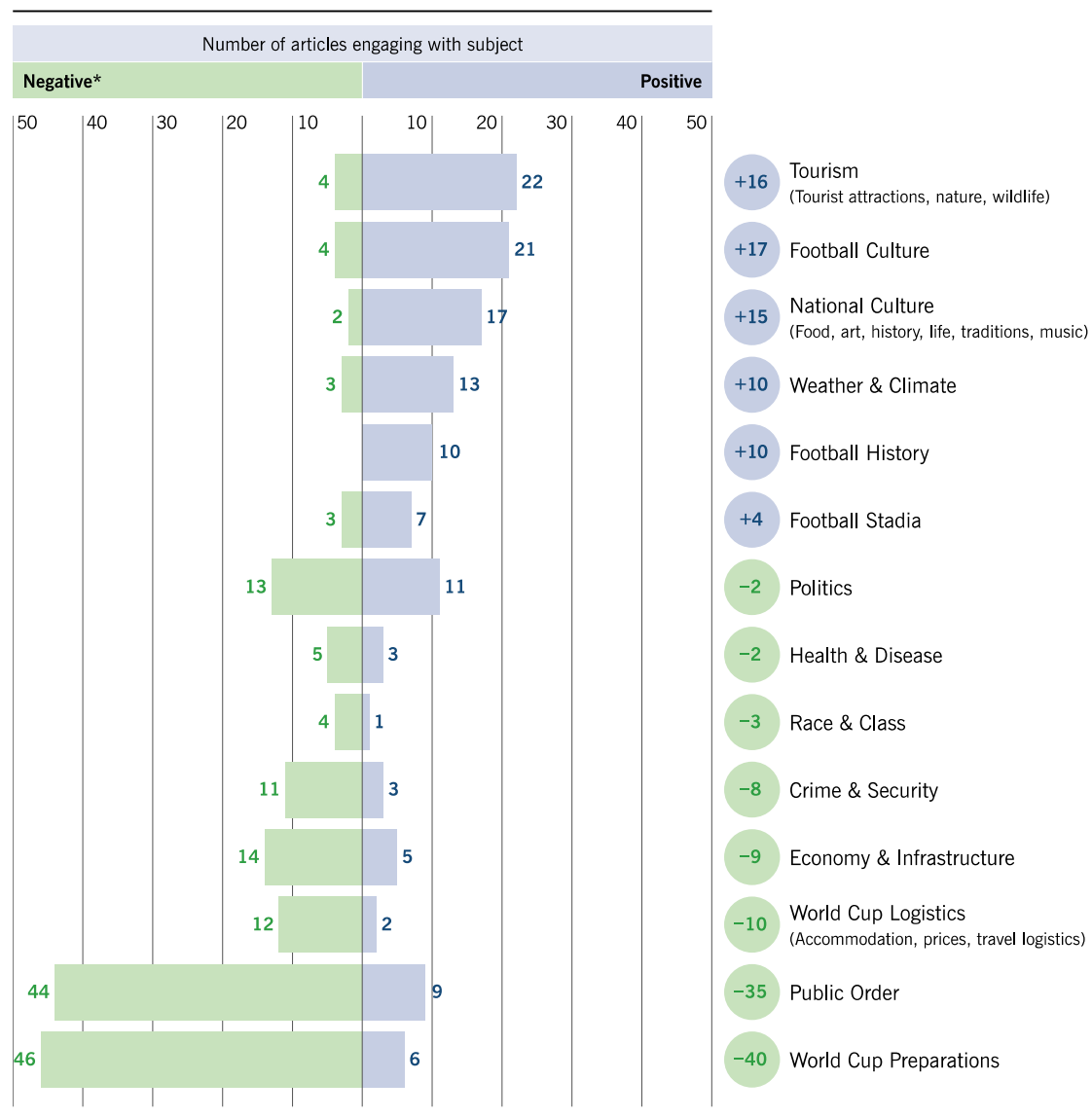
The review process, its principles based broadly on Eisenhardt’s relativist case methodology (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, p.99), utilised keyword search tags and Boolean logic<sup>45</sup> to scan for article content, drawing on a framework established by Hammett (2011) to identify and group dominant narratives. A date range was selected to cover the period leading up to and including the World Cup ticket sales phases (Table 1). In total, 139 relevant news articles<sup>46</sup> and 70 relevant sports articles<sup>47</sup> were returned. NVivo software was used to analyse and group article narratives before refinements were made through subjective engagement with the articles. Emergent positive and negative themes were coded accordingly (Fig.7). The positive themes<sup>48</sup> to emerge included tourism (16), football culture (17), national culture (15), weather and climate (10), football history (10) and football stadia (4). By “sharpening up

these basic constructs” (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, p.99), triangulating them with the relevant academic literature to improve reliability (Gray, 2014) and manipulating existing scale items measuring DI and tourist motivation (Funk & Bruun, 2006, Funk *et al.*, 2009; Chen & Funk, 2010), three scale factors were constructed to measure destination appeal. They were named *tourist attractions*, *cultural attractions* and *local sports culture*.

**Table 1.** Date range for media review.

| Media review date range | Period(s) covered                                                        | Start Date | End Date |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|----------|
| 01/07/13 – 30/07/13     | Confederations Cup 2013                                                  | 15/07/13   | 30/07/13 |
| 01/08/13 – 31/10/13     | World Cup <b>Sales Phase 1</b> : Random selection draw period            | 20/08/13   | 20/10/13 |
| 01/11/13 – 31/11/13     | World Cup <b>Sales Phase 1</b> : First come first served period          | 05/11/13   | 28/11/13 |
|                         | World Cup final draw to determine groups games and venues                | 06/12/13   |          |
| 01/12/13 – 30/01/14     | World Cup <b>Sales Phase 2</b> : National Association ticket sales phase | 08/12/13   | 30/01/14 |

Fig.7. BBC news article summary table.



\*Negatively connoted themes were deemed to represent constraint issues which were not considered for this study.

### 4.2.3. Question construction

The use of Likert-type scales in sports and tourism studies has not been consistent, with five-point (Funk *et al.*, 2001), six-point (Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008), seven-point (Robinson & Trail, 2005), eight-point (Wann, 1995) and even ten-point scales (Zhang *et al.*, 2004) all being utilised. Based on Finstad's (2010) finding that seven-point scales, whilst remaining compact, allow for more accurate evaluation than five-point scales in unsupervised settings, the survey was devised using consistent seven-point scales and a



midpoint of ‘neither agree or disagree’ to best approximate an ‘interval’ measure along the agree/disagree continuum (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.501).

**Table 2.** *World Cup ticket purchasing options.*



| Individual Match Tickets (IMTs) |               |              |             |                |             |               |           |
|---------------------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|----------------|-------------|---------------|-----------|
| Tournament stage                | Opening Match | Group Stages | Round of 16 | Quarter Finals | Semi Finals | 3rd/4th Place | The Final |
| Match number                    | 1             | 2–48         | 49–56       | 57–60          | 61–62       | 63            | 64        |

Available on a match-by-match basis for each of the 64 tournament matches.

| Venue Specific Tickets (VSTs) |                |              |        |                |           |           |
|-------------------------------|----------------|--------------|--------|----------------|-----------|-----------|
| Host venue                    | Belo Horizonte | Brasília     | Cuiaba | Curitiba       | Fortaleza | Manaus    |
| Number of matches             | 4              | 6            | 4      | 4              | 5         | 4         |
| Host venue                    | Natal          | Porto Alegre | Recife | Rio de Janeiro | Salvador  | São Paulo |
| Number of matches             | 4              | 5            | 5      | 5              | 5         | 4         |

A package of tickets to attend every match in a selected host city.

| Team Specific Tickets (TSTs) |       |       |       |       |       |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Ticket Series                | TST 3 | TST 4 | TST 5 | TST 6 | TST 7 |
| Number of matches            | 3     | 4     | 5     | 6     | 7     |

-  Available from FIFA & The FA
-  Only available from FIFA

A package of tickets to follow a specific team for the duration of its progress in the tournament. If the selected team is knocked out, the remaining match tickets automatically switch to follow the victorious opponents.

Source: adapted from FIFA: [http://de.fifa.com/mm/document/tournament/ticketing/02/15/43/02/2014fwc\\_ticketingfanguide\\_en\\_neutral.pdf](http://de.fifa.com/mm/document/tournament/ticketing/02/15/43/02/2014fwc_ticketingfanguide_en_neutral.pdf), accessed May 2014.

Multi-choice questions regarding ticket purchases were developed following a detailed review of the World Cup ticketing options (Table 2). The words ‘majority’ and ‘primary’ were used to manage an array of permutations. Although this phrasing reduced the accuracy of the questions it was deemed preferable to failing to allow for all possible outcomes (*ibid.*). Question tenses were reconciled on the basis that respondents could have already attended or were due to attend games. Past visitation and behavioural measures were drawn from Kaplanidou & Vogt (2007) and reconstituted into dichotomous ‘moderator’ questions to meet this study’s research design.

Sociodemographic questions of age, gender, marital status, number of dependents, education level and income were also included. In order to compare responses to a socioeconomic reality, intervals for the income scale

were based on averages for an “up-to-date multi-dimensional model of social class” (Table 3) derived from Pierre Bourdieu’s theories of social stratification and the BBC’s 2011 Great British Class Survey (Savage *et al.*, 2013).

**Table 3.** *Summary of social classes.*

| Class                            | %  | Income               |                               | Demographics |          |             | Description                                                                                                                                               |
|----------------------------------|----|----------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|----------|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                  |    | Household Income (£) | Income Range <sup>a</sup> (£) | Mean Age     | % Female | % Graduates |                                                                                                                                                           |
| <b>Elite</b>                     | 6  | 89,082               | More than £60,000             | 57           | 50       | 56          | Very high economic capital (especially savings), high social capital, very high highbrow cultural capital.                                                |
| <b>Established middle class</b>  | 25 | 47,184               | 45,000 – 59,999               | 46           | 54       | 43          | High economic capital, high status of mean contacts, high highbrow and emerging cultural capital.                                                         |
| <b>Technical middle class</b>    | 6  | 37,428               | 35,000 – 44,999               | 52           | 59       | 26          | High economic capital, very high mean social contacts, but relatively few contacts reported, moderate cultural capital.                                   |
| <b>New affluent workers</b>      | 15 | 29,252               | 25,000 – 34,999               | 44           | 43       | 11          | Moderately good economic capital, moderately poor mean score of social contacts, though high range, moderate highbrow but good emerging cultural capital. |
| <b>Traditional working class</b> | 14 | 13,305               | 10,000 – 14,999               | 66           | 62       | 11          | Moderately poor economic capital, though with reasonable house price, few social contacts, low highbrow and emerging cultural capital.                    |
| <b>Emergent service workers</b>  | 19 | 21,048               | 24,999 – 15,000               | 34           | 55       | 19          | Moderately poor economic capital, but with reasonable household income, moderate social contacts, high emerging (but low highbrow) cultural capital.      |
| <b>Precariat</b>                 | 15 | 8,253                | Less than 10,000              | 50           | 57       | 3           | Poor economic capital and the lowest scores on every other criterion.                                                                                     |

a. Income Range developed from average household incomes.

Source: adapted from Savage *et al.*, 2013, p.230.

For each question, attention was paid to the rigour and meaning of language (Jobber & Fahy, 2009; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). Middle register was the preferred tone (Hart, 2005), with terms such as ‘passage of play’ deemed familiar and appropriate ‘sports talk’ (Wann, 2001, p.183). Emotive phrases such as *o jogo bonito* (the beautiful game) were revised and leading terms such as ‘England supporter’ replaced with neutral ones such as ‘visitor’. Subject to an inspection of FIFA’s Public Guidelines,<sup>49</sup> all references to the organisation were also removed.

#### **4.2.4. Survey design and production**

To address what Burns & Burns call ‘public relations validity’ (2012, p.428), a professionally designed and printed survey pack was produced. The double-

sided, A4 survey was designed to effectively reconcile appearance, functionality and print costs, with section headers and numbered questions designed to increase visual appeal (Carroll, 1994, p.14). Attention was paid to question ordering, with sensitive sociodemographic items placed last to reduce the likelihood of refusals (Fink, 2013, p.60) followed by an acknowledgment and return instructions (Bourque & Fielder, 2003, p.112). A separate A5 'cover sheet' incorporating brief instructions, a summary of the respondents' rights and a weblink was designed for respondents to retain. The survey pack was completed by a plain self-sealing envelope, ensuring anonymity and alleviating the pressure to provide "socially desirable answers" (Jobber & Fahy, 2009, p.94).

**Images 7 & 8.** *Final printed surveys and collated survey packs.*



Three people known to the researcher and representative of the target population piloted the finished survey (Oppenheim, 2002; Fink, 2013, p.74). This confirmed the clarity of the questions and ensured completion within the 10 minute time limit. Following minor copy amends, 400 survey packs were produced<sup>50</sup> (Images 7 & 8).

#### **4.2.5. Online support**

The research material was supported by a website providing a full and accurate description of the research aims and participants' rights, along with appropriate contact details. In order to allay concerns about imparting sensitive personal information, smartphone and tablet formats were developed for respondents to access in real time.

### **4.3. Data collection process**

#### **4.3.1. Sampling method**

The sampling frame was practically defined as ‘anyone seen, heard or assumed to be English’, with provision to determine eligibility using screening questions.<sup>51</sup> Simple randomised sampling was the preferred method for reducing errors and maximising generalisation (Hart, 2005; Burns & Burns, 2012). Selection bias was mediated by adopting a systematic interception procedure with a one-in-two sampling interval (Neale & Funk, 2005; Funk *et al.*, 2009). Groups formed a legitimate component of the sampling frame but a maximum of one survey per group was administered (Neale & Funk, 2005, p.44). To mitigate external distractions and improve delivery standardisation, respondents were approached whilst seated and relaxed. Anyone believed to be under the influence of alcohol was not approached and people actively requesting surveys were politely refused. Good personal judgement was applied at all times.

The face-to-face collection also raised the potential for ‘experimenter effects’ to bias responses (Gorard, 2003, p.166). Attempts were made to combat this by wearing neutral clothes, presenting the survey consistently via a prepared script and allowing sufficient time and space for surveys to be completed. In order to avoid researcher ‘contamination’ (de Vaus, 2002, p.130) questions relating to the research aims were only answered on completion of the survey.

#### **4.3.2. Practical issues**

The potential for a small sample size to increase the likelihood of a Type II error was noted (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.432) and considerable efforts were made to gather data that met the minimum requirements for statistical analysis. However, despite extensive pre-planning the data collection phase proved highly challenging and was hampered by a several logistic and circumstantial issues.

### 4.3.3. Response rates

In total 130 surveys were completed: 60 in São Paulo, 36 in Belo Horizonte and 34 in Recife (Images 9 & 10). 122 (93.8%) were found to be usable. Refusals numbered around 50, the majority occurring in the lead-up to England's match in Belo Horizonte. However, it was noted that the characteristics of this sample were not dissimilar to those at other collection sites, rather the environment was less conducive to collecting data with respondents either standing or in transit. The impact of non-response bias was therefore posited to be minimal and the overall response rate deemed to provide what Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2008) term an "imprecisely right" sample of English Football Tourists at World Cup 2014. The sample size necessitated a revised confidence interval of  $\pm 8.8\%$  to be factored into the research findings.

Images 9 & 10. Data collection in São Paulo.



Source: Christian Gysin, "England fans in Sao Paulo attacked with fireworks by Brazilian thugs," *The Daily Mail*, June 19, 2014, <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2662942/England-fans-Sao-Paulo-attacked-fireworks-Brazilian-thugs-leaving-10-hospital.html>, accessed June 2014.

## 5. Analysis and results

### 5.1. Data analysis

SPSS 20 software was used to process and analyse the data. Each survey was marked with an ID code and input data screened for accuracy using frequencies and box plots. The surveys were then destroyed. 14 surveys deemed unusable due to partial completion, defacements or multiple invalid responses were treated as listwise deletion (Allison, 2002, p.7). Incidences of missing data within otherwise usable surveys were treated using recommended methods.<sup>52</sup> Extreme outliers ( $Z > 3.29$ ) were manipulated using a modified Winsorisation technique<sup>53</sup> and results cross-checked using box plots. To facilitate analysis, two behavioural and three sociodemographic questions were combined and recoded.

#### 5.1.1. Internal reliability testing

With no opportunity to pre-test the original factor items, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) had not been used to establish the communality of these items (Cortina, 1993). In order to confirm factor unidimensionality, three Principle Components Analyses (PCA)<sup>54</sup> with Varimax Rotation were performed on the item sets *sports motivation* ( $KMO=.863$ ;  $p<.001$ ), *leisure motivation* ( $KMO=.676$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and *event & destination appeal* ( $KMO=.747$ ;  $p<.001$ ). All three PCA's exceeded the 5:1 minimum cases to variables ratio (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.445) and tested appropriately for *KMO's* measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity (*ibid.*, p.454). Only components displaying eigenvalues exceeding unity and unambiguous items reporting communality  $>0.6$  were retained (*ibid.*, p.445).

The twelve item set 'sports motivation' revealed four components displaying eigenvalues exceeding unity ( $PVE=69.8$ ). However, the aesthetic appreciation item '*There is a certain natural beauty to the game of football*' loaded onto fan of football ( $PVE=17.72$ ), leaving a two-item aesthetic appreciation component

( $PVE=8.61$ ). The most significant component ( $PVE=29.76$ ) loaded all nine items from team identification, national pride and vicarious achievement. Whilst this outcome may imply a construct failure or a problem with the clarity of the survey instrument, it was hypothesised that results may reflect Funk & James' (2001; 2006) finding that team allegiance impacts on cognition: ostensibly, that the constructs may have been interpreted differently amongst subgroups according to their levels of allegiance to the England team.

In order to investigate this hypothesis, the PCA for sports motivation was re-run by partitioning respondents into two subgroups: those attending England games, labelled *England fans* ( $n=65$ ;  $KMO=.702$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and those not attending England games, labelled *spectators* ( $n=51$ ;  $KMO=.789$ ;  $p<.001$ ). For England fans, three vicarious achievement items plus the national pride item '*When England wins I feel proud to be English*' ( $PVE=19.38$ ) loaded onto a single component. The remaining two national pride items and the team identification item '*I am a fan of the England Team whether they win or lose*' ( $PVE=12.12$ ) loaded separately. In contrast, the PCA for spectators loaded all three team identification items, two vicarious achievement items and the national pride item '*When England wins I feel proud to be English*' onto a single component ( $PVE=24.70$ ). The remaining national pride items loaded separately ( $PVE=10.40$ ). These findings, confirming that the two subgroups cognitise the relationships between team identification, national pride and vicarious achievement differently, form part of the discussion in Subsection 6.1. Further to a reexamination of the relevant literature, items were regrouped and the factors renamed to reflect the changes (Table 4).

For leisure motivation, the intellectual stimulation item '*Expand my knowledge*' loaded successfully onto the social interaction component to create a four-item subscale ( $PVE=28.95$ ), whilst the remaining intellectual stimulation items failed to load. It is posited that respondents may have associated the acquisition of sporting knowledge (Trail & James, 2001) with the social interaction inherent in discussing games, travel plans or other forms of trip related activity. Two escape items ( $PVE=20.68$ ) appeared to represent only

**Table 4.** Alterations to factors after PCA.

| Original factor                                  | Item                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | New factor                   |
|--------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Fan of Football                                  | First and foremost I consider myself to be a football supporter<br>I am a huge fan of football in general<br>I love the game of football<br><b>There is a certain natural beauty to the game of football (Aesthetic Appreciation)</b>                                             | <b>Football Appreciation</b> |
| Vicarious Achievement                            | I feel a personal sense of accomplishment when the England team does well<br>I feel like I have won when the England team wins<br>When the England team wins, I feel my status as a supporter is enhanced<br><b>When England wins I feel proud to be English (National Pride)</b> | <b>Emotional Achievement</b> |
| Eustress                                         | I prefer a close match to a one-sided match<br>A football match is more enjoyable when the outcome is not decided until the very end<br>I enjoy the drama of a 'last minute' goal                                                                                                 | Eustress*                    |
| National Pride                                   | Patriotism is a big reason why I attend the World Cup<br>I attend the World Cup to represent my country                                                                                                                                                                           | National Pride               |
| Aesthetic Appreciation                           | A quality passage of play is one of the best things about watching a football match<br>I enjoy watching players display their individual skills                                                                                                                                   | <b>Player Skills*</b>        |
| Team Identification                              | I consider myself to be a loyal supporter of the England team<br>I am a fan of the England team whether they win or lose<br>The England team is more important to me than other sports teams*                                                                                     | <b>Self-identity</b>         |
| Social Interaction /<br>Intellectual Stimulation | Socialise with others<br>Develop friendships<br>Meet new and different people<br>Expand my knowledge                                                                                                                                                                              | <b>Social Stimulation</b>    |
| Escape                                           | Relax Mentally<br>Get away from 'real life'                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | Escape                       |
| Event Appeal                                     | Enjoy the festivities and atmosphere of the tournament<br>Experience the thrills of the tournament in person<br>Be part of a once-in-a-lifetime event                                                                                                                             | Event Appeal                 |
| Local Sports Culture                             | Experience Brazilian football culture<br>Visit famous football stadiums<br>Appreciate the history of Brazilian football                                                                                                                                                           | Local Sports Culture         |
| Cultural Attraction /<br>Tourist Attraction      | Visit Brazil's famous landmarks and sights<br>Explore Brazil's scenery and natural attractions<br>Learn about the Brazilian way of life<br>Interact with local people<br>Enjoy Brazilian entertainment and cuisine                                                                | <b>Destination Appeal</b>    |

\*Removed after alpha testing

the cerebral and emotional components of 'escaping', mirroring research by Ryan & Glendon (1998). Intuitively this made sense, given that respondents may have been subjected to different degrees of physical exertions such as



long flights or bus journeys during their trip. The factors were amended accordingly (see Table 4).

For destination appeal, five of the tourist and cultural attraction sub-scale items loaded onto a single component ( $PVE=25.28$ ). The item '*Enjoy the Brazilian climate*' cross-loaded. Together, the five items appeared to measure the overall concept of Brazil's destination appeal (see Table 4).

The 11 revised factors were subject to internal reliability testing using Cronbach's alpha<sup>55</sup> and results interpreted according to Nunnally & Bernstein's (1994) widely accepted rule-of-thumb.<sup>56</sup> Variances between items were found to be minimal so the raw alpha coefficients were cited (Table 5).

**Table 5.** Internal reliability (alpha) testing after PCA.

| Factors                    | No. of Items       | alpha ( $\alpha$ )         |
|----------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| Emotional Achievement      | 4                  | 0.900                      |
| Football Appreciation      | 4                  | 0.834 <sup>a</sup>         |
| Destination Appeal         | 5                  | 0.826                      |
| National Pride             | 2                  | 0.804                      |
| Social Stimulation         | 4                  | 0.791                      |
| Escape                     | 2                  | 0.777                      |
| Self-identity              | 2 <sup>b</sup> (3) | 0.765 <sup>b</sup> (0.681) |
| Event Appeal               | 3                  | 0.740 <sup>c</sup>         |
| Local Sports Culture       | 3                  | 0.730                      |
| Eustress <sup>d</sup>      | 3                  | 0.569                      |
| Player Skills <sup>d</sup> | 2                  | 0.525                      |

a. Item 'There is a natural beauty to the game of football' **retained**.

b. Item 'The England team is more important to me than other sports teams' **removed**.

c. Item 'enjoy the festivities and atmosphere of the tournament' **retained**.

d. Factors excluded from further analysis.

Nine factors returned acceptable or better ( $\alpha>0.7$ ) alpha scores, with emotional achievement returning excellent internal consistency ( $\alpha=0.900$ ) and three factors returning good internal consistency (football appreciation  $\alpha=0.834$ ; destination appeal  $\alpha=0.826$ ; national pride  $\alpha=0.804$ ). Although item

removal increased the football appreciation and event appeal scores to ( $\alpha=0.856$ ) and ( $\alpha=0.794$ ) respectively, the items were subsequently found to

help normalise the factor data (see subsection 5.1.2) and were therefore retained. Removal of the item '*The England team is more important to me than other sports teams*' was, however, necessary to improve the self-identity score to acceptable levels ( $\alpha=0.765$ ). Eustress ( $\alpha=0.569$ ) and player skills ( $\alpha=0.525$ ) returned scores appreciably below the minimum acceptable baseline and were excluded from further analysis. The causes and implications are discussed in Subsection 6.1.

In summary, nine internally reliable factors influencing travel motivation were identified: four sports motivational factors; two leisure motivational factors, two destination appeal factors and one factor measuring event appeal.

### **5.1.2. Assessing normality**

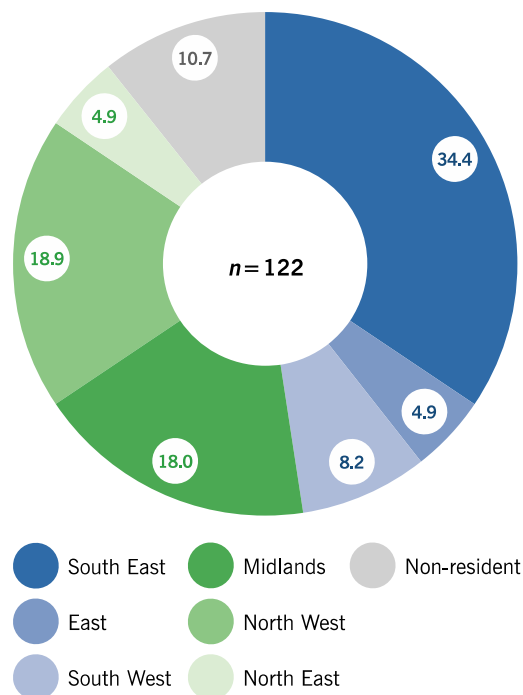
Factor items were grouped and inspected for normality. Negative skew ranged from moderate (skewness ratio  $=-2.83$ ) to extreme (skewness ratio  $=-7.28$ ). Although high levels of skewness may have been caused by the survey's seven-point Likert-type format contributing to extreme response bias (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001) or what Greenleaf terms 'yeasaying' (1992, p.176), it is likely that positive responses were the result of a highly motivated sample. Factors were transformed to improve normality.<sup>57</sup>

## **5.2. Respondent profiles**

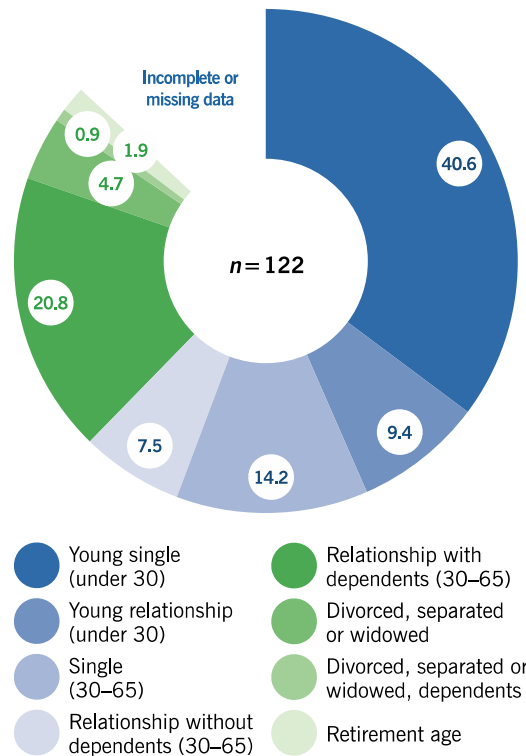
### **5.2.1. Sociodemographic profiles**

Respondents represented every region of England, although a significant number came from the South East (34.4%) and a notable percentage (10.7%) were not resident in England (Fig.8). The vast majority were male (86.1%). Ages ranged from 18–21's to over 65's with a median age of 30–39 (25.4%), but almost two-thirds (59.0%) were single or never married (Fig.9).

**Fig.8.** Respondent profiles: region of England (%).



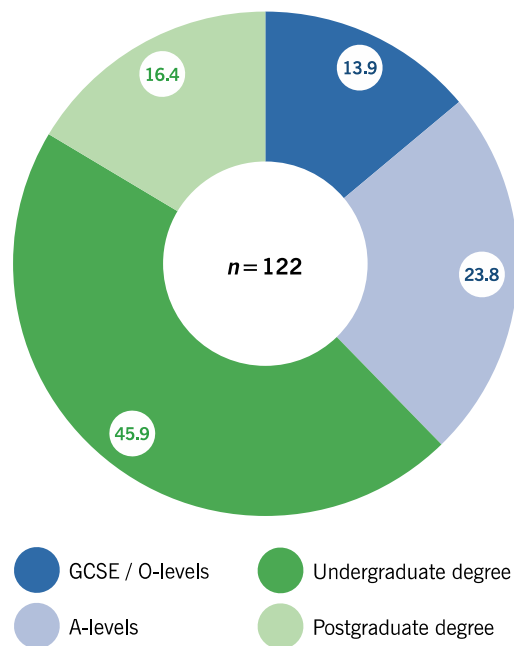
**Fig.9.** Respondent profiles: Life stage: age, marital status, dependents (%).



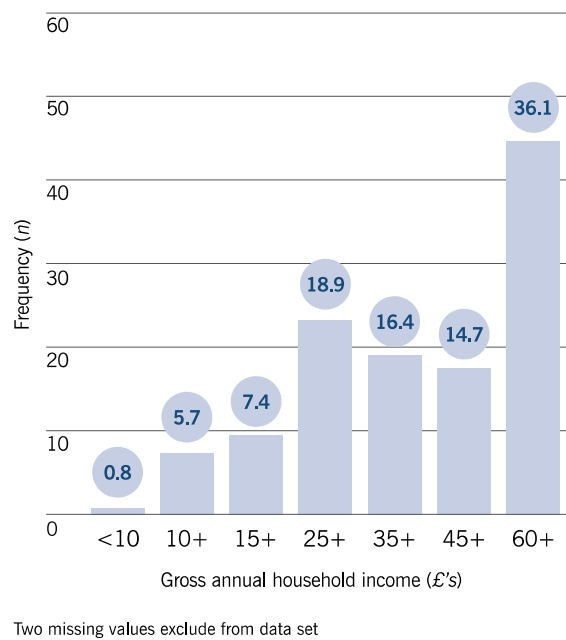
The sample was more highly educated than the UK average (38%),<sup>58</sup> with nearly two-thirds (62.3%) holding at least an undergraduate degree (Fig.10). Annual household incomes were above the national median of £32,100<sup>59</sup> with more than one-third (36.1%) reporting incomes in excess of £60,000 (Fig.11). The social facet of travel to the event was evident (Fig.12) with more than three-quarters (75.4%) of respondents having travelled with friends, yet significantly fewer had travelled with spouses (15.6%) than claimed to be in relationships (36.0%).

Overall, the sociodemographic picture is not dissimilar to Davies & Williment's depiction of international rugby union followers as "disproportionately representative of older, wealthier, highly qualified and educated, urbanized (sic) males" (2008, p.221).

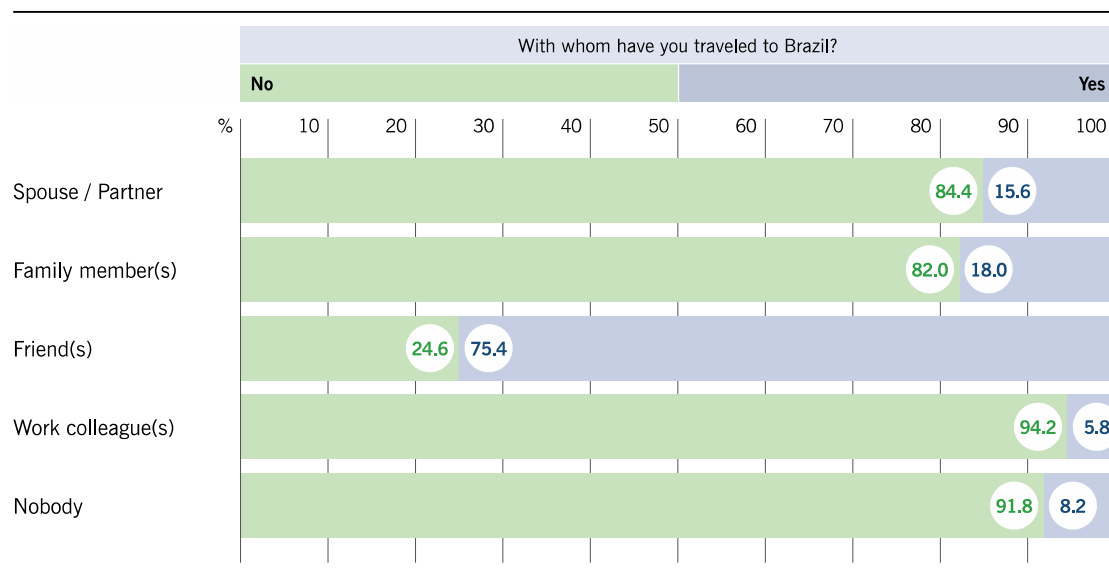
**Fig.10.** Respondent profiles: education (%).



**Fig.11.** Respondent profiles: household income (£'s).



**Fig.12.** Respondent profiles: travel companions (n = 122).

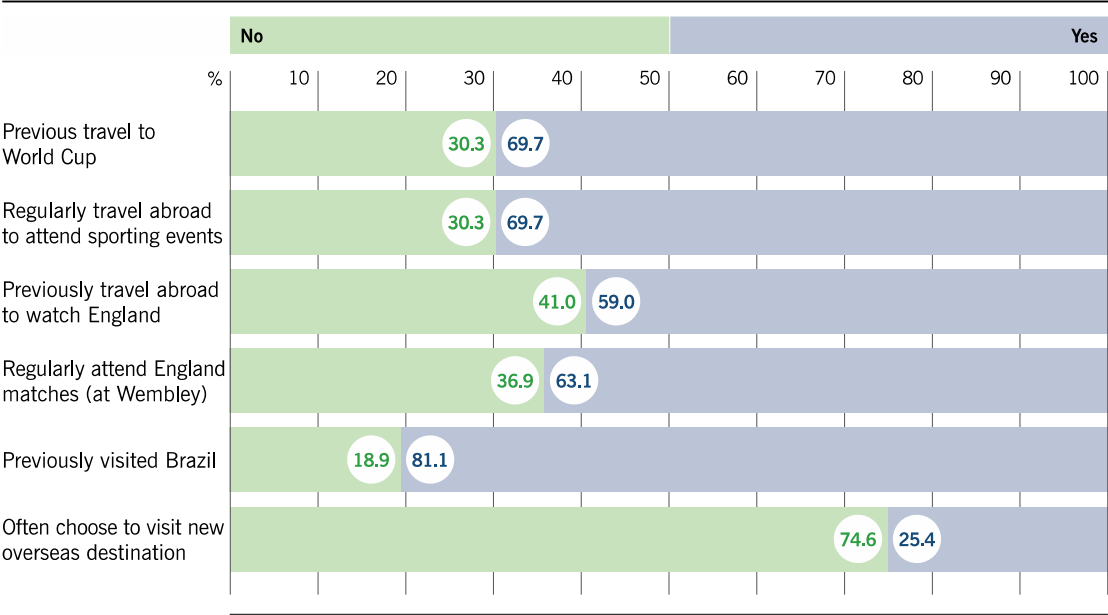


## 5.2.2. Behavioural profiles

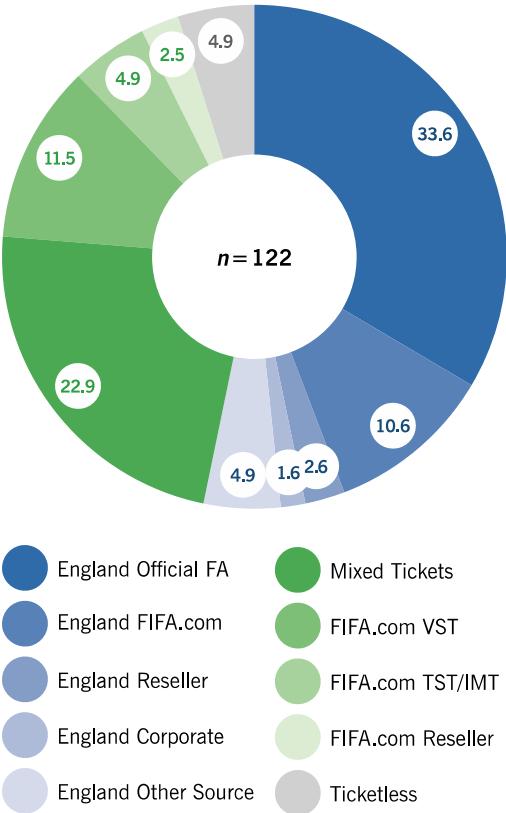
For many respondents this was their first time at a World Cup (69.7%) and their first visit to Brazil (81.1%). Those regularly travelling to international sports events were in the minority (30.3%), although more had previously followed the England team abroad (41.0%) than regularly attended matches at Wembley (36.9%) (Fig.13). Almost all (95.1%) were match ticket holders,

with a close split between ‘England only’ TST/IMT holders (54.3%) and ‘non-England’ or ‘combination’ IMT, TST or VST holders (45.7%). Around half the sample purchased tickets via official FIFA channels (51.7%), and approximately one-third (33.6%) of tickets were purchased by friends (Fig.14).

**Fig.13.** Respondent profiles: previous travel and attendance behaviours (n = 122).



**Fig.14.** Respondent profiles: ticket purchasing (%).



### **5.3. Hypothesis A: attendance motivation**

The strength of respondents' motivations were assessed through an unconverted means value comparison (see Table 6). Each of the nine factors revealed a strong and positive correlation with attendance. Overall, respondents rated event appeal ( $M=6.47$ :  $SD=.535$ ) and football appreciation ( $M=6.23$ :  $SD=.762$ ) as the most important factors for them. Self-identity ( $M=6.01$ :  $SD=.906$ ), destination appeal ( $M=5.67$ :  $SD=.766$ ), social stimulation ( $M=5.69$ :  $SD=.784$ ) and emotional achievement ( $M=5.57$ :  $SD=1.106$ ) were also rated as important. Escape ( $M=4.81$ :  $SD=1.242$ ) was regarded as the least important factor overall. However, variations in  $SD$  suggested that emotional achievement and escape were likely to be the most significant differentiating factors between groups of respondents.

Results supported the hypothesis that a combination of sport and leisure motivations and event and destination appeal were important in drawing English Football Tourists to the World Cup.

### **5.4. Hypotheses B & C: 'push', 'pull' and behavioural factors**

The relationships between push, pull and behavioural factors were explored using a two-stage regression analysis. Three stepwise multiple regressions with backward entry were conducted using three 'pull' factors as dependent variables (DV's), six motivational 'push' factors as independent variables (IV's) and six dichotomous dummy behavioural variables as moderators. Correlation matrixes were satisfactorily inspected for multicollinearity and no other data assumptions were violated (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.378). The final 'best fit' models were then rerun as hierarchical regressions with the relevant moderators added sequentially. Results are presented in Tables 7, 8 & 9.

All three regressions were found to be statistically significant: event appeal ( $F=4.632$ ;  $p<.001$ ), destination appeal ( $F=2.270$ ;  $p=.013$ ) and local sports culture ( $F=2,748$ ;  $p=.003$ ). Whilst Crompton warns not to expect motivation to

**Table 6.** *Unconverted means value comparison.*

| Factors               | Mean | SD    |
|-----------------------|------|-------|
| Event Appeal          | 6.47 | 0.535 |
| Football Appreciation | 6.23 | 0.762 |
| Self-identity         | 6.01 | 0.906 |
| Social Stimulation    | 5.69 | 0.784 |
| Destination Appeal    | 5.67 | 0.766 |
| Emotional Achievement | 5.57 | 1.106 |
| Local Sports Culture  | 5.54 | 0.802 |
| National Pride        | 5.04 | 1.415 |
| Escape                | 4.81 | 1.242 |

**Table 7.** *Final multiple regression analysis model predicting overall relationship between motivations and event appeal (n = 122)..*

| R <sup>2</sup>                                | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F      |      | p    |      |
|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|------|------|
| 0,279                                         | 0,261                   | 15,226 |      | ,000 |      |
| Factors                                       | D                       | B      | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)                                    |                         | .265   | .103 |      | .011 |
| Football Appreciation                         |                         | .396   | .071 | .454 | .000 |
| Social Stimulation                            |                         | .280   | .080 | .285 | .001 |
| Regularly attend England matches (at Wembley) | 1                       | .398   | .059 | .173 | .044 |

**Table 8.** *Final multiple regression analysis model predicting overall relationship between motivations and destination appeal (n = 122).*

| R <sup>2</sup>     | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F      | p    |      |      |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|------|------|
| 0.168              | 0.161                   | 24.257 | .000 |      |      |
| Factors            | D                       | B      | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)         |                         | .411   | .072 |      | .000 |
| Social Stimulation |                         | .395   | .080 | .410 | .000 |

**Table 9.** *Final multiple regression analysis model predicting overall relationship between motivations and local sports culture (n = 122).*

| R <sup>2</sup>                             | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p       |      |
|--------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|---------|------|
| 0.181                                      | 0.153                   | 6.456 |      | .000    |      |
| Factors                                    | D                       | B     | SE   | $\beta$ | p    |
| (Constant)                                 |                         | 1.391 | .093 |         | .000 |
| Social Stimulation                         |                         | .190  | .064 | .251    | .004 |
| Emotional Achievement                      |                         | .157  | .054 | .270    | .004 |
| Previous travel to World Cup               | 1                       | .173  | .058 | .310    | .003 |
| Regularly travel abroad to sporting events | 1                       | -.169 | .054 | -.302   | .002 |

account for large variances in tourist behaviour as there “may be other inter-related forces operating” (1979, p.424), Cohen’s (1988) effect size conventions<sup>60</sup> affirmed models that accounted for a large proportion of variance in event appeal (26.1%) and medium proportions in destination appeal (16.1%) and local sports culture (15.3%).

Overall, football appreciation was found to be the most significant predictor of event appeal ( $\beta=.454$ ;  $t=5.578$ ;  $p<.001$ ), supporting the hypothesis. However, emotional achievement, self-identity and national pride were not significant, suggesting that allegiances to the England team were not necessarily increased by the advent of a mega-tournament. The social opportunities provided by the event ( $\beta=.285$ ;  $t=3.486$ ;  $p=.001$ ) were predictive, albeit social stimulation was found to be more strongly correlated with destination appeal ( $\beta=.410$ ;  $t=4.925$ ;  $p<.001$ ). The strength of the push–pull relationships was positively moderated by regular attendance at Wembley ( $\beta=.173$ ;  $t=2.039$ ;

$p=.044$ ), but whilst the assumption that supporting England 'at home' increases the likelihood of following the team 'away' is a plausible one, the relative effect of this moderating variable was revealed to be minimal (2%).

Local sports culture was demonstrated to be positively correlated both to social stimulation ( $\beta=.251$ ;  $t=2.948$ ;  $p=.004$ ) and emotional achievement ( $\beta=.270$ ;  $t=2.915$ ;  $p=.004$ ). However, the model's predictive power was significantly improved by the combined behavioural moderation of previous travel to a World Cup ( $\beta=.310$ ;  $t=2.983$ ;  $p=.003$ ) and regular travel abroad to watch sports events ( $\beta=-.302$ ;  $t=-3.122$ ;  $p=.002$ ). Expressly, where attendees had travelled to a previous World Cup tournament but did not travel frequently to other international sports events, the social and emotional incentive to follow England in Brazil was seen to increase. No other behavioural relationships were identified.

Overall, hypotheses B & C were only partially supported and the majority of variance within the regression models remained unexplained. It is clear that the relationships between 'push', 'pull' and behavioural factors are complex and require further contextual research.

### **5.5. Hypotheses D & E: Football tourist typologies and ticket purchasing behaviour**

To explore the taxonomies of English Football Tourists, a four-stage methodology was undertaken. Cluster analysis was applied to group respondents' motivational profiles and Multiple Discriminant Analysis (MDA) employed to establish the validity of these groups. Cross-tabulation was then used to test for demographic and behavioural idiosyncrasies amongst each of the clusters. Finally, simple linear regression was utilised to round out generalisable typologies for further discussion.

Punj & Stewart note that few well-established rules exist to determine how clusters should be delineated (1983, p.136). However, a two-stage methodology incorporating an inductive hierarchical phase followed by a non-



hierarchical K-means analysis is considered the most robust method for ensuring ‘external isolation’ and ‘internal cohesion’ (*ibid.*) and has performed well in previous sports tourism studies (Kyle *et al.*, 2002; Ross, 2007; Kim *et al.*, 2007). Six motivational factors – football appreciation, emotional achievement, national pride, self-identity, social stimulation and escape – were subject to cluster analysis using untransformed data (Dolničar, 2003, p.144). The six-variable analysis ( $n=122$ ) met Formann’s minimum sample requirement ( $2^6=64$ )<sup>61</sup> (*ibid.*, p.143). To improve internal validity, the sample was randomly partitioned and Ward’s minimum variance method applied to each subsample (Dolničar, 2003; Kim *et al.*, 2007; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). Dendrograms and agglomeration coefficients for the two groups were compared to determine an initial number of cluster groups. Four cluster groups were identified and subjected to K-means analysis, with variances tested using one-way ANOVA. The final cluster results are detailed in Table 10.

**Table 10.** *Final cluster centres and ANOVA results.*

| Factors               | Cluster 1 | Cluster 2 | Cluster 3 | Cluster 4 | F-values | p-values |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Emotional Achievement | 3.47      | 5.44      | 6.25      | 6.32      | 109.46   | .000     |
| National Pride        | 3.16      | 4.35      | 6.02      | 6.17      | 72.81    | .000     |
| Self-identity         | 5.03      | 5.63      | 6.60      | 6.57      | 31.83    | .000     |
| Football Appreciation | 5.54      | 6.30      | 6.73      | 6.47      | 9.88     | .000     |
| Escape                | 5.47      | 4.81      | 3.19      | 5.64      | 46.03    | .000     |
| Social Stimulation    | 6.21      | 5.59      | 5.27      | 5.85      | 104.46   | .000     |
| Number of cases       | 19        | 42        | 26        | 35        |          |          |
| Percentage of cases   | 15.6%     | 34.4%     | 21.3%     | 28.7%     |          |          |

\*The *F*-tests are used only for descriptive purposes because the clusters have been chosen to maximize the differences among cases in different clusters.

Source: adapted from Kim *et al.*, 2007, p.150.

To investigate each factor’s contribution to the cluster groups, MDA was performed using the four clusters as DV’s. Normative assumptions were fulfilled by using transformed IV data, whilst other data assumptions were met (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.590). Statistically significant mean differences between IV’s were noted in the equality of group means table, validating the MDA (Table 11). Box’s M indicated that the homogeneity of covariance assumption had been violated ( $F=2.63$ ,  $p=.000$ ).<sup>62</sup> However, as Box’s M is considered highly sensitive to incidences of non-normality (Stevens, 2002, p.230) and the

cluster log determinants were found to be similar (Burns & Burns, *ibid.*, p.598), the MDA was deemed valid. Results are detailed in Table 12.

**Table 11.** Test of equality of group means.

| Factors               | Lambda | F      | p    |
|-----------------------|--------|--------|------|
| Emotional Achievement | .367   | 67.822 | .000 |
| National Pride        | .466   | 45.061 | .000 |
| Self-identity         | .522   | 36.086 | .000 |
| Football Appreciation | .806   | 9.474  | .000 |
| Escape                | .488   | 41.326 | .000 |
| Social Stimulation    | .867   | 6.041  | .001 |

**Table 12.** Results of the multiple discriminant analysis: discriminant functions.

| Variables             | F1      | F2     | F3     |
|-----------------------|---------|--------|--------|
| Eigenvalue            | 2.910   | 0.931  | 0.150  |
| % variance            | 72.9    | 23.3   | 3.8    |
| Canonical correlation | .863    | .694   | .870   |
| Wilk's Lambda         | .115    | .450   | .860   |
| Chi-square            | 250.699 | 92.527 | 16.179 |
| p-values              | .000    | .000   | .003   |

**Table 13.** Results of the multiple discriminant analysis: structure matrix table.

| Factors               | F1    | F2    | F3    |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Emotional Achievement | .731* | .398  | -.368 |
| National Pride        | .581* | .411  | .193  |
| Self-identity         | .525* | .313  | .410  |
| Football Appreciation | .286* | -.017 | -.110 |
| Escape                | -.342 | .869* | -.206 |
| Social Stimulation    | -.169 | .197  | .477* |

\*Largest correlation between each variable and any discriminant function.

**Table 14.** Results of the multiple discriminant analysis: cross-validated classification results.

| Cluster | Predicted Group Membership |       |       |       |
|---------|----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
|         | 1.00                       | 2.00  | 3.00  | 4.00  |
| 1.00    | 84.2%                      | 15.8% | 0.0%  | 0.0%  |
| 2.00    | 2.4%                       | 85.7% | 4.8%  | 7.1%  |
| 3.00    | 0.0%                       | 3.8%  | 96.2% | 0.0%  |
| 4.00    | 0.0%                       | 14.3% | 5.7%  | 80.0% |

91.8% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

86.1% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified.

The first order discriminant function accounted for a large proportion of the variance between clusters (72.9%), with inspection of the structure matrix (Table 13) showing that the most significant variable in the function was achievement (.731), followed by national pride (.581) and self-identity (.525). This first order function appears to represent overall levels of English subcultural identity (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Robinson & Trail, 2005). In the second order discriminant function, escape was highly significant (.869) and in the third order discriminant function, social stimulation was significant (.477). Football appreciation was found to be a relatively weak discriminator. The classification table revealed that 86.1% of cross-validated grouped cases were classified correctly (Table 14), with Group 3 being the most accurate (96.2%) and Group 4 the least (80.0%). Overall, the model exceeded the Proportional Chance Criterion (30.6%)<sup>63</sup> by 55.5%, confirming the accuracy of the model's discriminatory power above chance.

To assess each of the four clusters for behavioural and sociodemographic significance, cross-tabulation with chi-square goodness-of-fit was employed (Kim *et al.*, 2007). The results are detailed in Tables 15 & 16. Three demographic variables were found to be statistically significant: gender ( $\chi^2=5.494$ ,  $p<.05$ ), highest level of educational qualification obtained

**Table 15.** Demographic profiles of clusters (%).

| Demographic characteristics                                   |                              | Cluster 1         | Cluster 2         | Cluster 3         | Cluster 4   | Amalgamated       |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| <b>Gender</b><br>( $\chi^2 = 5.494$ , $p<.05$ )               | Male                         | 84.2              | 73.8              | <b>96.2</b>       | <b>94.3</b> | 86.1              |
|                                                               | Female                       | <b>15.8</b>       | <b>26.2</b>       | 3.8               | 5.7         | 13.9              |
| Age                                                           | 18–21                        | 0.0               | 2.4               | 0.0               | 2.9         | 1.6               |
|                                                               | 22–25                        | 31.6              | 23.8              | 26.9              | 11.4        | 22.1              |
|                                                               | 26–29                        | 15.8              | 38.1              | 19.2              | 17.2        | 24.6              |
|                                                               | 30–39                        | 36.8              | 19.0              | 19.2 <sup>a</sup> | 34.3        | 26.3 <sup>a</sup> |
|                                                               | 40–49                        | 15.8              | 4.8               | 19.2              | 11.4        | 11.5              |
|                                                               | 50–59                        | 0.0               | 7.1               | 7.7               | 11.4        | 7.4               |
|                                                               | 60–64                        | 0.0               | 2.4               | 3.8               | 11.4        | 4.9               |
|                                                               | 65+                          | 0.0               | 2.4               | 3.8               | 0.0         | 1.6               |
| Marital Status                                                | Single, never married        | 78.9              | 64.3              | 50.0              | 48.6        | 59.0              |
|                                                               | Married, living with partner | 21.1              | 26.2              | 50.0              | 45.7        | 36.1              |
|                                                               | Divorced/separated/widowed   | 0.0               | 9.5               | 0.0               | 5.7         | 4.9               |
| Household Income                                              | Under £10,000                | 0.0               | 0.0               | 0.0               | 2.9         | 0.8               |
|                                                               | £10,000 – £14,999            | 0.0               | 9.5               | 0.0               | 8.6         | 5.7               |
|                                                               | £15,000 – £24,999            | 0.0               | 7.1               | 11.5              | 8.6         | 7.4               |
|                                                               | £25,000 – £34,999            | 36.8              | 11.9              | 11.5              | 22.9        | 18.9              |
|                                                               | £35,000 – £44,999            | 26.3              | 14.3 <sup>c</sup> | 19.2              | 11.4        | 16.4 <sup>b</sup> |
|                                                               | £45,000 – £59,999            | 19.2 <sup>c</sup> | 11.9              | 19.2              | 14.3        | 14.7 <sup>c</sup> |
|                                                               | £60,000+                     | 21.1              | 45.2              | 38.5              | 31.4        | 36.1              |
| <b>Education</b><br>( $\chi^2 = 28.606$ ; $p<.01$ )           | GCSE / O-Levels              | 0.0               | 4.8               | 23.1              | <b>25.7</b> | 13.9              |
|                                                               | A-Levels                     | 15.8              | 21.4              | 11.5              | <b>40.0</b> | 23.8              |
|                                                               | Undergraduate Degree         | 47.4              | <b>61.9</b>       | 46.2              | 25.7        | 45.9              |
|                                                               | Postgraduate Degree          | <b>36.8</b>       | 11.9              | 19.2              | 8.6         | 16.4              |
| <b>Region of Residence</b><br>( $\chi^2 = 28.718$ ; $p<.05$ ) | South East                   | <b>42.1</b>       | 35.7              | 30.8              | 31.4        | 34.4              |
|                                                               | East of England              | 0.0               | 2.4               | 7.7               | 8.6         | 4.9               |
|                                                               | South West                   | <b>15.8</b>       | 9.5               | 7.7               | 2.9         | 8.2               |
|                                                               | Midlands                     | 10.5              | 7.1               | <b>23.1</b>       | <b>31.4</b> | 18.0              |
|                                                               | North West                   | 5.3               | <b>26.2</b>       | <b>19.2</b>       | <b>17.1</b> | 18.9              |
|                                                               | North East                   | 0.0               | <b>11.9</b>       | 0.0               | 2.9         | 4.9               |
|                                                               | Outside of England           | <b>26.3</b>       | 7.1               | 11.5              | 5.7         | 10.7              |

a. Includes one 3.8% average score based on E–M imputation

b. Includes one 2.4% average score based on E–M imputation

c. Includes one 5.3% average score based on E–M imputation

Source: adapted from Kim *et al.*, 2007, p.153.

**Table 16.** Behavioural profiles of clusters (%).

| Behavioural characteristics                                                       |     | Cluster 1   | Cluster 2   | Cluster 3   | Cluster 4   | Amalgamated |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Previously travelled to World Cup<br>( $\chi^2 = 15.18$ ; $p < .01$ )             | Yes | 5.3         | 19.0        | <b>46.2</b> | <b>45.7</b> | 30.3        |
|                                                                                   | No  | <b>94.7</b> | <b>81.0</b> | 53.8        | 54.3        | 69.7        |
| Regularly travel abroad to attend sporting events                                 | Yes | 21.1        | 19.0        | 38.5        | 42.9        | 30.3        |
|                                                                                   | No  | 78.9        | 81.0        | 61.5        | 57.1        | 69.7        |
| Previously travelled abroad to watch England<br>( $\chi^2 = 23.87$ ; $p < .001$ ) | Yes | 10.5        | 23.8        | <b>61.5</b> | <b>62.9</b> | 41.0        |
|                                                                                   | No  | <b>89.5</b> | <b>76.2</b> | 38.5        | 37.1        | 59.0        |
| Regularly attend England matches at Wembley<br>( $\chi^2 = 23.66$ ; $p < .001$ )  | Yes | 10.5        | 19.0        | <b>65.4</b> | 51.4        | 36.9        |
|                                                                                   | No  | <b>89.5</b> | <b>81.0</b> | 34.6        | 48.6        | 63.1        |
| Visited Brazil before                                                             | Yes | 10.5        | 19.0        | 30.8        | 14.3        | 18.9        |
|                                                                                   | No  | 89.5        | 81.0        | 69.2        | 85.7        | 81.1        |
| Often choose to visit a new overseas destination                                  | Yes | 78.9        | 85.7        | 65.4        | 65.7        | 74.6        |
|                                                                                   | No  | 21.1        | 14.3        | 34.6        | 34.3        | 25.4        |
| Travelled to World Cup 2014 with spouse / partner                                 | Yes | 5.3         | 19.0        | 15.4        | 17.1        | 15.6        |
|                                                                                   | No  | 94.7        | 81.0        | 84.6        | 82.9        | 84.4        |
| Travelled to World Cup 2014 family member                                         | Yes | 21.1        | 7.1         | 30.8        | 20.0        | 18.0        |
|                                                                                   | No  | 78.9        | 92.9        | 69.2        | 80.0        | 82.0        |
| Travelled to World Cup 2014 with friends                                          | Yes | 68.4        | 76.2        | 69.2        | 82.9        | 75.4        |
|                                                                                   | No  | 31.6        | 23.8        | 30.8        | 17.1        | 24.6        |
| Travelled to World Cup 2014 with work colleagues                                  | Yes | 10.5        | 7.1         | 0           | 5.7         | 5.7         |
|                                                                                   | No  | 89.5        | 92.9        | 100.0       | 94.3        | 94.3        |
| Travelled to World Cup 2014 alone                                                 | Yes | 21.1        | 7.1         | 3.8         | 5.7         | 8.2         |
|                                                                                   | No  | 78.9        | 92.9        | 96.2        | 94.3        | 91.8        |

Source: adapted from Kim *et al.*, 2007, p.153.

( $\chi^2=28.606$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and region of residence ( $\chi^2=28.718$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Two self-reported behaviours were found to be highly significant: previous travel abroad to watch England ( $\chi^2=23.87$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and regular attendance at England matches ( $\chi^2=23.66$ ,  $p<.001$ ). A third behaviour, previous travel to a World Cup ( $\chi^2=15.18$ ,  $p<.01$ ) was also significant. Surprisingly, life stage was found not to be significant, with under-40's single males predominant across all four clusters.

Finally, in order to measure the predictive value of the variables, regression analysis was performed using the four cluster groups as selection variables. As in Subsection 5.4, 'push' factors defined the IV's and 'pull' factors the DV's.

However, the limited sample size precluded the use of multiple linear regression. In order not to violate the minimum number of cases assumption<sup>64</sup> (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.378) simple linear regressions were run instead, with the loss of predictive power noted. The results are presented in Tables 17–29.

**Table 17. Cluster 1: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between social stimulation and event appeal (n = 19).**

| R <sup>2</sup>     | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p       |      |
|--------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|---------|------|
| 0.350              | 0.312                   | 9.144 |      | .008    |      |
| Factors            |                         | B     | SE   | $\beta$ | p    |
| (Constant)         |                         | .170  | .250 |         | .504 |
| Social Stimulation |                         | .677  | .224 | .591    | .008 |

**Table 19. Cluster 1: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between escape and destination appeal (n = 19).**

| R <sup>2</sup> | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p    |      |
|----------------|-------------------------|-------|------|------|------|
| 0.232          | 0.187                   | 5.135 |      | .037 |      |
| Factors        |                         | B     | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)     |                         | −.068 | .427 |      | .875 |
| Escape         |                         | .454  | .200 | .482 | .037 |

**Table 18. Cluster 1: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between emotional achievement and event appeal (n = 19).**

| R <sup>2</sup>        | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F      | p    |       |      |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|-------|------|
| 0.311                 | 0.271                   | 7.688  | .013 |       |      |
| Factors               |                         | B      | SE   | β     | p    |
| (Constant)            |                         | 1.190  | .126 |       | .000 |
| Emotional Achievement |                         | −1.391 | .478 | −.558 | .013 |

**Table 20. Cluster 1: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between social stimulation and destination appeal (n = 19).**

| R <sup>2</sup>     | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     | p    |      |      |
|--------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|------|------|
| 0.358              | 0.320                   | 9.463 | .007 |      |      |
| Factors            |                         | B     | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)         |                         | .166  | .243 |      | .505 |
| Social Stimulation |                         | .671  | .218 | .598 | .007 |

**Table 21. Cluster 2: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between football appreciation and event appeal (n = 42).**

| R <sup>2</sup>        | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p    |      |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|------|------|
| 0.190                 | 0.169                   | 9.355 |      | .004 |      |
| Factors               |                         | B     | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)            |                         | .483  | .138 |      | .001 |
| Football Appreciation |                         | .455  | .149 | .435 | .004 |

**Table 23. Cluster 2: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between national pride and destination appeal (n = 42).**

| R <sup>2</sup> | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     | p    |       |      |
|----------------|-------------------------|-------|------|-------|------|
| 0.107          | 0.184                   | 4.769 | .035 |       |      |
| Factors        |                         | B     | SE   | β     | p    |
| (Constant)     |                         | 1.173 | .237 |       | .000 |
| National Pride |                         | −.296 | .136 | −.326 | .035 |

**Table 22. Cluster 2: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between emotional achievement and event appeal (n = 42).**

| R <sup>2</sup>        | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p     |      |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|-------|------|
| 0.130                 | 0.108                   | 5.995 |      | .019  |      |
| Factors               |                         | B     | SE   | β     | p    |
| (Constant)            |                         | 1.269 | .169 |       | .000 |
| Emotional Achievement |                         | -.498 | .204 | -.360 | .019 |

**Table 24. Cluster 2: Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between social stimulation and destination appeal (n = 42).**

| R <sup>2</sup>     | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F      |      | p    |      |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|------|------|
| 0.221              | 0.201                   | 11.323 |      | .002 |      |
| Factors            |                         | B      | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)         |                         | .212   | .142 |      | .143 |
| Social Stimulation |                         | .594   | .177 | .470 | .002 |

**Table 25. Cluster 3:** Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between social stimulation and local sports culture (n=26).

| R <sup>2</sup>     | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p    |      |
|--------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|------|------|
| 0.162              | 0.127                   | 4.632 |      | .042 |      |
| Factors            |                         | B     | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)         |                         | 1.514 | .087 | .000 |      |
| Social Stimulation |                         | .225  | .105 | .402 | .042 |

**Table 26. Cluster 4:** Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between football appreciation and event appeal (n=35).

| R <sup>2</sup>        | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F      |      | p    |      |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|------|------|
| 0.357                 | 0.338                   | 18.323 |      | .000 |      |
| Factors               |                         | B      | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)            |                         | .386   | .143 | .011 |      |
| Football Appreciation |                         | .597   | .139 | .598 | .000 |

**Table 28. Cluster 4:** Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between self-identity and event appeal (n=35).

| R <sup>2</sup> | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | F     |      | p    |      |
|----------------|-------------------------|-------|------|------|------|
| 0.229          | 0.206                   | 9.820 |      | .004 |      |
| Factors        |                         | B     | SE   | β    | p    |
| (Constant)     |                         | .342  | .206 | .106 |      |
| Self-Identity  |                         | .476  | .152 | .479 | .004 |

**Table 27. Cluster 4:** Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between social stimulation and event appeal (n=35).

| R <sup>2</sup>     |  | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> |      | F     |      |
|--------------------|--|-------------------------|------|-------|------|
| p                  |  |                         |      |       |      |
| 0.149              |  | 0.119                   |      | 5.602 |      |
|                    |  |                         |      | .024  |      |
| Factors            |  | B                       | SE   | β     | p    |
| (Constant)         |  | .569                    | .176 |       | .003 |
| Social Stimulation |  | .451                    | .190 | .381  | .024 |

**Table 29. Cluster 4:** Final regression analysis model predicting relationship between social stimulation and local sports culture (n=35).

| R <sup>2</sup>     |  | Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> |      | F     |      |
|--------------------|--|-------------------------|------|-------|------|
| p                  |  |                         |      |       |      |
| 0.119              |  | 0.093                   |      | 4.475 |      |
|                    |  |                         |      | .042  |      |
| Factors            |  | B                       | SE   | β     | p    |
| (Constant)         |  | 1.498                   | .143 |       | .000 |
| Social Stimulation |  | .327                    | .155 | .346  | .042 |

Overall, results of the analysis revealed four motivationally and behaviourally distinct typologies of English Football Tourists. Although the subgroup sample sizes were small they exceeded the '20 to 30' (Fink, 2013, p.83) needed to make meaningful statistical comparisons. The typologies were labelled *Social Escapers*, *Tournament Revellers*, *England Patriots* and *England Enthusiasts*. Social Escapers were characterised by large and significant social motivation effect sizes for event appeal ( $R^2_{adj}=.312$ ;  $\beta=.591$ ) and destination appeal ( $R^2_{adj}=.320$ ;  $\beta=.598$ ), medium correlation between escape and destination appeal ( $R^2_{adj}=.187$ ;  $\beta=.482$ ) and a large inverse correlation between emotional achievement and event appeal ( $R^2_{adj}=.271$ ;  $\beta=-.558$ ). Tournament Revellers also reported large social motivation effect sizes for destination appeal

( $R^2_{adj}=.320$ ;  $\beta=.470$ ) but not for event appeal, which was instead significantly correlated to football appreciation ( $R^2_{adj}=.169$ ;  $\beta=.435$ ). Inverse correlations between emotional achievement and event appeal ( $R^2_{adj}=.108$ ;  $\beta=-.360$ ) and national pride and destination appeal ( $R^2_{adj}=.201$ ;  $\beta=-.326$ ) were also revealed. Disproportionately high numbers of Tournament Revellers were undergraduates (61.9%), aged under 30 (64.3%) or female (26.2%). Conversely, England Patriots (96.2%) and England Enthusiasts (94.3%) were disproportionately male, with both typologies reporting small but significant correlations between social motives and local sports culture ( $R^2_{adj}=.127$ ;  $\beta=.402$ ;  $R^2_{adj}=.093$ ;  $\beta=.327$ ). However, England Enthusiasts were differentiated from England Patriots via correlations between event appeal and football appreciation ( $R^2_{adj}=.338$ ;  $\beta=.598$ ), social stimulation ( $R^2_{adj}=.119$ ;  $\beta=.381$ ) and self-identity ( $R^2_{adj}=.206$ ;  $\beta=.479$ ).

Ticket purchase behaviour was revealed to be significantly associated with these clusters ( $\chi^2=72.890$ ,  $p<.001$ ), with the majority of official ticket holders representing England Patriots and England Enthusiasts and high numbers of VST and mixed IMT holders representing Social Escapers and Tournament Revellers (Table 30).

**Table 30.** *Ticket purchasing behaviours of clusters (%)*.

| Ticket purchase behaviour                                   | Cluster 1   | Cluster 2   | Cluster 3   | Cluster 4   | Amalgamated |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <b>(<math>\chi^2=72.890</math>, <math>p&lt;.001</math>)</b> |             |             |             |             |             |
| England Official                                            | 0.0         | 14.3        | <b>57.1</b> | <b>57.1</b> | 33.6        |
| England FIFA                                                | 5.3         | 9.5         | 11.5        | 14.3        | 10.7        |
| England Reseller                                            | 5.3         | 0.0         | 0.0         | 5.7         | 2.5         |
| England Corporate                                           | 0.0         | 0.0         | 7.7         | 0.0         | 1.6         |
| England Other                                               | 0.0         | 9.5         | 7.7         | 0.0         | 4.9         |
| Repertoire Fan                                              | <b>36.8</b> | <b>33.3</b> | 11.5        | 11.4        | 23.0        |
| FIFA VST                                                    | <b>31.6</b> | 9.5         | 3.8         | 8.6         | 11.9        |
| FIFA TST/IMT                                                | <b>15.8</b> | 4.8         | 0.0         | 2.9         | 4.9         |
| FIFA Reseller                                               | 0.0         | 7.1         | 0.0         | 0.0         | 2.5         |
| Ticketless                                                  | 5.3         | <b>11.9</b> | 0.0         | 0.0         | 4.9         |

The four typologies are summarised in Table 31 and further elucidated in Section 6.3.

**Table 31.** *England Football Tourist typologies summary table.*

| Characteristic                               | Cluster 1                                                                                                      | Cluster 2                                                                                                       | Cluster 3                                                                   | Cluster 4                                                                                                                       |
|----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Name                                         | Social Escapers<br>15.6%                                                                                       | Tournament Revellers<br>34.4%                                                                                   | England Patriots<br>21.3%                                                   | England Enthusiasts<br>28.7%                                                                                                    |
| Emotional Achievement                        | Low                                                                                                            | High                                                                                                            | Very high                                                                   | Very high                                                                                                                       |
| National Pride                               | Low                                                                                                            | Medium                                                                                                          | High                                                                        | High                                                                                                                            |
| Self-identity                                | High                                                                                                           | Medium-high                                                                                                     | Extremely high                                                              | Extremely high                                                                                                                  |
| Football Appreciation                        | High                                                                                                           | Very high                                                                                                       | Extremely high                                                              | Very high                                                                                                                       |
| Escape                                       | High                                                                                                           | Medium                                                                                                          | Low                                                                         | High                                                                                                                            |
| Social Stimulation                           | Very high                                                                                                      | Medium-high                                                                                                     | Medium                                                                      | Medium-high                                                                                                                     |
| Previously travelled to World Cup            | Extremely unlikely                                                                                             | Unlikely                                                                                                        | Likely                                                                      | Likely                                                                                                                          |
| Previously travelled abroad to watch England | Highly unlikely                                                                                                | Unlikely                                                                                                        | Highly likely                                                               | Highly likely                                                                                                                   |
| Regularly attend England matches at Wembley  | Highly unlikely                                                                                                | Unlikely                                                                                                        | Highly likely                                                               | Highly likely                                                                                                                   |
| Gender                                       | Predominantly male                                                                                             | More likely to be female                                                                                        | Male                                                                        | Male                                                                                                                            |
| Education                                    | High number of postgraduates                                                                                   | Likely to be graduates                                                                                          | Mixed educations, but a large percentage of graduates                       | More likely to have undergraduate qualifications                                                                                |
| Region of Residence                          | Large percentage likely to live in South East. May also live overseas                                          | High proportion in urban centres of the South East, Midlands and North East                                     | High proportion in urban centres of the South East, Midlands and North East | High proportion in urban centres of the South East, Midlands and North East                                                     |
| Event Appeal                                 | Likely to be seen as an opportunity for social engagement rather than a means to live out subcultural identity | Likely to represent an opportunity to appreciate the sport rather than a means to live out subcultural identity | No specific tendencies                                                      | Likely to represent opportunities to appreciate the sport, socialise and engage in conspicuous displays of subcultural identity |
| Destination Appeal                           | Likely to be seen as an opportunity for social exchanges but also a means of escape                            | Likely to be seen as an opportunity for social exchanges rather than a reason to display nationalism            | No specific tendencies                                                      | No specific tendencies                                                                                                          |
| Local Sports Culture                         | No specific tendencies                                                                                         | No specific tendencies                                                                                          | May be seen as an opportunity for social bonding and subcultural exchanges  | May be seen as an opportunity for social bonding and subcultural exchanges                                                      |
| Ticket type                                  | Likely to be non-England or Venue Specific                                                                     | Mixed, with a number of non-ticketed travellers                                                                 | Likely to be England TST's or IMT's                                         | Likely to be England TST's or IMT's                                                                                             |

Source: adapted from Ryan & Glendon, 1998, p.179–80.



## 6. Discussion

This study sought to explicate the motivational and behavioural profiles of English Football Tourists attending World Cup 2014 in five ways: by confirming the positive influence of fan and leisure motivations and event and destination appeal amongst attendees; by establishing relationships between 'push' and 'pull' factors and assessing their relative strength; by examining the moderating influence of prior behavioural traits on these relationships; by exploring how these factors combine with sociodemographic variables to reveal meaningful 'typologies' of English Football Tourists and by assessing whether these groups exhibit specific ticket buying patterns. Further, the study undertook to consider the practical implications of these findings for organisers of future mega-tournaments and for the NGBs charged with marketing and administering event tickets. Each of these research aims is discussed in turn.

### 6.1. Motivational factors affecting attendance

Overall, the strong and positive influence of fan and leisure motivations and event and destination appeal on attendance was established, corroborating existing research (Kim & Chalip, 2004; Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008). Results demonstrated a degree of hierarchical similarity with Kim & Chalip's study (2004, p.700), with event appeal being the strongest reported overall influence and escape the weakest. Mean ratings in this study were uniformly higher but this was expected – answering the questions in-situ confirmed that respondents' motivations were sufficiently strong to overcome any potential constraints and propel them to the event.

However, internal reliability testing produced two unexpected outcomes. Firstly, both the eustress and aesthetic appreciation (player skills) subscales fell well below the minimum acceptable alpha baseline. Having proved to be consistently reliable motivational measures in previous fan studies (Wann, 1995; Funk *et al.*, 2001; Trail & James, 2001), this was surprising. However, a single survey response provided a clue: next to the question '*I enjoy the*

*drama of a last minute goal* one respondent had scribbled '*Not against*'. This implies that respondents may have interpreted certain questions with reference to the England team and others with reference to football in general. Whilst this must be regarded as a reliability setback, it does raise interesting theories about attendees' cognitive attitudes towards drama and artistry in mega-tournament settings. Specifically, defeat in the tournament means an early exit, potentially bringing the tourist's trip to a premature end. Amongst those who attended for as long as 'their' team remained in the competition, it is possible that the drama usually enjoyed whilst watching the team was fundamentally revaluated according to its potential 'risk'. Future sports attendance studies should evaluate this phenomenon.

A second reliability issue involves the relationship between vicarious achievement, self-identity and national pride. Overall, the item '*When England wins I feel proud to be English*' was conceived as vicarious achievement, suggesting that the self-esteem derived from associating with a winning England team was inexorably bound up in winning 'as a nation'. The phenomenon of the England team acting as a metonymic for the nation is noted by Bishop & Jaworski (2003, p.251) and tends to support Koenigstorfer *et al.*'s coining of the term 'emotional achievement' to represent "both a sense of accomplishment and the positive emotion of pride when [a supporter's] team performs well" (2010, p.652). However, this pride in winning appears distinct from national pride. For England match ticket holders the question '*I am a fan of the England Team whether they win or lose*' was perceived as patriotism, implying that traits of stoicism and duty are internalised into their concept of 'Englishness'. This is likely to explain the subcultural rituals (Funk & James, 2006) that are regularly played out using symbols of war (Images 11 & 12) and chants of "Ten German Bombers" and "No Surrender" (Crabbe, 2008). Yet, whilst self-identity amongst England match ticket holders appeared to be partially governed by their cognisance of what it means to be English, those travelling without England match tickets reconciled emotional achievement and self-identity as extensions of the same concept – that of supporting the team.

**Images 11 & 12.** *'Nationalistic' England ephemera often incorporates symbols of war and conquest.*



Source: Christian Gysin, *ibid.*

## 6.2. Attitudinal and behavioural relationships

Overall, the appeal of the tournament, the cultural traditions of Brazilian football and the host destination's attractions all played a role in attracting attendees to World Cup 2014. Predictably, the 'once-in-a-lifetime' festival of football promised by the tournament was a major draw for those hoping to indulge their love of football and revel in the convivial atmosphere (Kim & Chalip, 2004). Yet in contradiction to previous research (Kaplanidou, 2007), the event was perceived to play a lesser role in meeting English Football Tourists' needs for social engagement than the culture and natural attractions of the host destination. Whilst this study's social stimulation construct does not reveal the precise nature of these engagements, they are posited to represent shared trip experiences with friends and family, or interactions with local people outside the immediate event environment.

It is tempting to assume that strong correlations between social stimulation and destination attraction are a symptom of low levels of subcultural identity (Green & Chalip, 1998). However, neither destination appeal nor event appeal were found to be correlated with the emotional achievement, self-identity and national pride deemed antecedent to English supporter subculture. Given the team's inability to progress in the competition, these findings may betray a tendency amongst highly identified fans to disassociate from the tournament 'competition' – in essence a form of CORFing (Hunt *et al.*, 1999). However, this result is more likely to be a consequence of the 'in-group favouritism'

(Heere & James, 2007; Derbaix & Decrop, 2011) that binds the 'real fans' in solidarity against other, less identified groups of attendees.

This conclusion is supported by the correlation between local football culture, social stimulation and emotional achievement, which implies that the "inter-tribal rivalries" (Smith & Stewart, 2007, p.164) that drive supporters to impose their rituals, chants and colours on 'native' football cultures may be a significant motivating factor for highly identified fans. This correlation was found to be moderated by prior World Cup attendance, contradicting previous research into the impact of past sports event experience (Kaplanidou, 2007; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). For respondents who had attended previous World Cups but rarely travelled to other international sports events, the appeal of playing out these subcultural rituals in Brazil was found to increase.

However, this behavioural variable notwithstanding, the study's results overall tend to support Cunningham & Kwon's (2003) assertion that attitudes and subjective norms have greater predictive powers for event attendance than prior attendance behaviours. Notably, previous visitation to Brazil did not moderate the destination push-pull, contradicting prior tourism research into destination "familiarity" and revisit intentions (Milman & Pizam, 1995; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; 2008). Results may be explained by incidences of affective DI decay brought about by low levels of place attachment (King *et al.*, 2012) although, equally, they may simply imply that positive and negative impressions of the country (Hu & Ritchie's, 1993) were aggregated by the dichotomous revisit question used in the survey. Further research is warranted to demystify these findings.

Overall, analysis of the push-pull dynamics uncovered several intriguing relationships but provided a limited account of the attitudinal and behavioural drivers implicit in mega-tournament attendance. Moreover, it should be recognised that despite the inferred 'push-pull' assumption the relationships which were identified cannot be treated as causal – they may be the result of reverse causation or what Oppenheim refers to as 'spiral reinforcement' (1992, p.18). For example, an individual's appreciation for football can be said

to precede the event's appeal, or be derived from it. Neither do the results imply a definitive causal relationship between affective attitudes and the act of attending World Cup 2014, they merely provide probable explanations for this act. These caveats should be heeded when reconciling the typological insight provided by the cluster analysis.

### **6.3. Football tourist typologies**

Four typologies of English Football Tourists were identified in this study: Social Escapers, Tournament Revellers, England Patriots and England Enthusiasts, with significant variances between these typologies supporting Weed & Bull's assumption that "different sports tourists experience activities differently" (2009, p.39). The four typologies broadly divide into two genres: the highly identified England Patriots and England Enthusiasts who were prone to expressing their self-concept through rituals of 'Englishness', and the Social Escapers and Tournament Revellers whose motivational drivers inclined more towards the event and its host. This distinction is analogous to the 'fans' and 'spectators' depicted by Wann *et al.* (2001) or the 'high and low attached' spectators identified by Alexandris & Tsiotsou (2012). Not surprisingly, the psychographic qualities of these two genres was reflected in their World Cup 2014 ticket purchases, with the majority of 'fans' holding England TST or IMTs and the majority of 'spectators' holding VSTs, non-England IMTs, combinations of tickets or no tickets at all.

#### **6.3.1. Social Escapers (15.6%)**

Social Escapers are the closest group to traditional 'holidaymakers' (Ryan & Glendon, 1998), viewing travel to the host destination as an opportunity to leave the stresses and strains of home behind. They are disposed to seek opportunities for social stimulation and perceive both the event and the destination as vehicles to satisfy this need; in this respect they are analogous to the 'Socials' group of Weed & Bull's 'Associated Experience Sports Tourists' (2009, p.84–85). A disproportionately high percentage (26.3%)

classify themselves as non-resident in England and it may follow that the tournament represents a muster point to renew acquaintances. Whilst Social Escapers regard England as 'their' team, it is less likely to define their sense of identity and they are the least likely to be emotionally affected if the team doesn't win. This attitude is reflected both in their past behaviours – Social Escapers are unlikely to be England Supporters Club members or have a history of following the team – and in their ticket purchases, with only (10.6%) exclusively holding England match tickets. Indeed, Social Escapers may be less favourably disposed to highly identified fans (Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Polk, 2007) and actively eschew the subcultural rituals associated with these groups, preferring instead to immerse themselves in the local attractions and event festivities. As a consequence, this group endorse the 'multiple motivational position' depicted by Robinson & Gammon (2004, p.59) where even at prestigious tournaments the sports offer is one of numerous factors that influence the attendance decision.

### **6.3.2. *Tournament Revellers (34.4%)***

Tournament Revellers tend to be young, single and educated. Although they are highly identified with the national team and want them to win, watching England is not the key driver for attending and they are likely to buy whatever tickets are available in order to experience the festivities first hand. In this respect they are reminiscent of the 'Internationalists' described by Crabbe who "...with a love of the 'beautiful game'... travel for football and don't mind which matches they see" (2008, p.434). With low levels of behavioural loyalty, they also share similarities with Giulianotti's sensation seeking 'Flâneurs' (2002) and the Repertoire Fans identified by Tapp & Clowes, for whom "loyalty is seen as a support issue (an attitude) rather than an attendance issue (behaviour)" (2000, p.1258). Like Social Escapers, this group are less likely to treat the occasion as a vehicle for flaunting their 'Englishness' and more likely to regard the destination as a place to derive social stimulation through engagement with its culture and attractions. Unlike Social Escapers, however, they are highly motivated by the sport on offer by the event and

more likely to indulge in conspicuous consumption both within the stadiums and at ancillary public sites.

### **6.3.3. England Patriots (21.3%)**

England Patriots are overwhelmingly male, predominantly England match ticket holders and following the England team appears to be their primary concern. Although highly invested in the sport of football their key motivational drivers are not the appeal of the event but a commitment to 'England' and the satisfaction derived from watching their country win. A modest correlation between social stimulation and local football culture suggests that the World Cup's setting acts as a satisfier for England Patriots, a likely consequence of the subcultural bonding derived from expressing 'in-group' solidarity in a foreign territory (Heere & James, 2007, p.86). This motivational driver, being correlated to the local sports culture, implies a level of ambivalence towards both the event festivities and the destination's attractions. The attitudinal and behavioural tendencies of England Patriots bear comparison with domestic football's typical 'season ticket holders', labelled 'fanatics' by Tapp (2003). Combined with their ticket buying behaviours and the significant percentage that regularly follow England 'home' (65.4%) and 'away' (61.5%), comparisons can also be drawn with Crabbe's 'Shirts', the "loyal and dependable 'customers' with tickets and travel obtained through orthodox channels" (Crabbe, 2008, p.434). The high number of England TST holders implies a degree of 'advance planning' (*ibid.*) and it is likely that this group are more prone to travel for the duration of their team's involvement in the tournament.

### **6.3.4. England Enthusiasts (28.7%)**

England Enthusiasts share many of their attitudinal, behavioural and sociodemographic characteristics with England Patriots: they are similarly invested in the national team and equally as likely to follow it abroad. However, for Enthusiasts the event satisfies a plurality of motivational demands including the need to socialise, indulge their love of football and join

in the festivities with displays of subcultural identification. Notably, the vast majority (82.9%) attended World Cup 2014 with friends. The motivation to escape is considerably higher amongst Enthusiasts than amongst Patriots, inferring that attending the tournament is less a 'tour of duty' and more an excuse for hedonistic diversion. Although household income is mixed, around two-thirds (65.7%) of Enthusiasts have no higher educational qualification: they may fall into the 'new affluent workers' or 'emergent service workers' classifications identified by Savage *et al.* (2013). The attitudinal and sociodemographic distinctions between this group and England Patriots are therefore unrecognised in Crabbe's (2008) observations – they are more analogous to Harris & Ogbonna's (2008) 'club-connected supporters', described as passionate, gregarious and purchasers of "highly visible merchandise" (p.392) such as shirts and flags.

### **6.3.5. Interpreting the typologies**

Crabbe (2004; 2008) contests that groups of attendees at mega-tournaments – he terms them Neo-tribes – play out a series of 'performances' where identities are constructed and deconstructed in a heightened state of liminality. However Crabbe's ideologies are not necessarily endorsed by this research. Having analysed a cross-sectional slice of the attitudes and behavioural histories of English Football Tourists at World Cup 2014, it is concluded that these relativist methodologies (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, p.83) can deduce clusters of core attendance drivers and behavioural characteristics that may be consistently observed and profiled in ways that have practical application for both tournament organisers and NGBs.

## **6.4. Implications for tournament organisers**

The opportunities for social connection and subcultural celebration provided by mega-tournaments have long been recognised and leveraged by organisers and sponsors in their marketing campaigns (Images 13 & 14). However, by establishing World Cup 2014 within a framework of 'pull' factors



and revealing how its appeal is derived in different ways by different typologies of attendees, this study supports Getz's call to "custom-design" highly targeted event experiences... based on greater knowledge of the planned event experience in all its dimensions." To deliver these experiences, organisers need to be sensitive to football tourists' needs and expectations and pay greater attention to who groups of potential attendees see themselves to be (Green, 1991).

Images 13 & 14. World Cup sponsors leverage social stimulation and subcultural identity in their marketing campaigns.



Source: José Roitberg, "Go with 100 friends to World Cup 2014 in Brazil," Flickr.com, September 5, 2013, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/roitberg/9682881354/>, accessed June 2014.



Source: Sony, "One Stadium Gallery," [http://x.football.sony.net/about/en?\\_ga=1.17368122.202130429.1418948389](http://x.football.sony.net/about/en?_ga=1.17368122.202130429.1418948389), accessed October 2014.

At the heart of this process lies the role of the host destination. In practical terms, Weed & Bull's assertion that "an avid football fan would not choose where to go to watch the World Cup... only whether or not to take the trip" (2009, p.81) is incontrovertible, yet it veneers over the affective and conative nuances revealed by this study. For Social Escapers and Tournament Revellers – who tend to be less highly identified with their team – destination appeal is not only a trip predictor but will also regulate consumption behaviour during the trip. Whilst Green & Chalip argue that sports tourists do not necessarily plan holidays around the 'pilgrimage' of an event (1998, p.276), Social Escapers represent 'Associated Experience Sports Tourists' for whom the sport experience is a secondary consideration (Smith & Stewart, 2007, p.161). Tournament Revellers, meanwhile, take pleasure from "a multiplicity of aspects of the game itself" (Tapp, 2003, p.207) and are prone to incorporating local culture and attractions into their hedonistic consumption. Together, these two groups represent a significant market from which the host destination can

leverage “secondary expenditure” (Weed & Bull, 2009, p.44) by encouraging what Kim & Chalip term ‘flow-on’ tourism (2004, p.703). Yet in terms of a World Cup, they are also the groups most likely to purchase tickets direct from FIFA, making them the least well understood. Profiling these groups in collaboration with destination marketers has potential to help custom-target attendees and facilitate greater involvement with the destination and its attractions (Filo *et al.*, 2011).

Meanwhile, whilst destination appeal is less likely to drive attendance amongst England Patriots, the subcultural benefits derived from following the national team do not increase with the advent of a mega-tournament. Rather, both this group and England Enthusiasts derive meaning from sharing and affirming identities within ‘opposing’ football subcultures (Green & Chalip, 1998). Whilst this implies that an appetite to ‘support the lads’ may be motivation enough to attend, such attitudes are reminiscent of the single-minded ‘Sport Junkies’ identified by Faulkner *et al.* at the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney (Gibson, 2004, p.249), and it follows that the practicalities of travel to the host destination – distance and cost – will play a decisive role in these group’s decisions to travel. Such constraints are unlikely to be overcome by using marketing initiatives to upsell the benefits of the tournament. Instead, consideration must be given to organisational issues such as ‘clustering’ group matches to reduce travel costs and persuading potential attendees that the time and money involved in making the trip is worth spending.

For all four typologies the host destination therefore plays a critical role in the motivational process. The upshot for organisers is that if the destination is not perceived by these groups to meet their expectations, attendance may be negatively affected. Yet this does not imply that ‘tried and trusted’ hosts should necessarily take precedence. Mirroring the conclusions of Kaplanidou (2007), this study finds that previous experience with the destination does not impact on attendance motivation. In the instance of FIFA, this tends to substantiate its policy of shunning the ‘safe’ options in Western Europe to work with host destinations elsewhere. However, where issues can arise is in

relation to the host's perceived sociocultural idiosyncrasies. Women are chronically underrepresented amongst English Football Tourists, with many men choosing to travel without their spouses. Notwithstanding the constraints associated with gender role expectations (Stebbins, 1992), perceptions of Russian machismo<sup>65</sup> and lack of equality rights in Qatar<sup>66</sup> may diminish the tournament's appeal to women (Jordan & Gibson, in Gibson *et al.*, 2008) and undermine FIFA's claims of 'inclusivity' (Images 15 & 16).

Images 15 & 16. FIFA's focus on 'inclusivity' has the potential to be undermined by future tournament hosts



Source: Paul Hinks, "FIFA – gatekeepers to our beautiful game," *Leaders we deserve*, <http://leaderswedeserve.wordpress.com/2014/02/06/fifa-gatekeepers-to-our-beautiful-game/>, accessed November 2014.



Source: FIFA, "Photo Gallery," *FIFA.com*, <http://www.fifa.com/aboutfifa/photogallery/gallery=1624376.html#1474605>, accessed November 2014.

Less positive perceptions of the local sports culture may also impact on the tournament's appeal. Whilst it is beyond the scope of this study to assess public perceptions of Russian and Qatari football culture, it is clear that in order to stimulate attendees' desires to play out their subcultural rituals, organisers should infuse a positive image of the host's organic football culture into their marketing strategies. Moreover, whilst the "visual pairing" (Chalip & Costa, 2005, p.225) of football and musical culture at World Cup 2014 implied a successful co-branding strategy between the organisers and the host, FIFA's promise of 'samba football' was never likely to be fulfilled by simply plastering 'all in one rhythm' across the tournament paraphernalia (Images 17 & 18). For Social Escapers and Tournament Revellers, local attractions such as entertainment and cuisine form an integral part of the tournament's appeal and it is the local people, not the marketers or even the event's "performative communities" (Crabbe, 2008, p.428), who must be engaged by organisers to satisfy these needs.

Adopting these engagement strategies should, in turn, meet Jones' calls to increase the revenue maximisation opportunities available to local

Images 17 & 18. FIFA marketing messages do not reflect the low levels of local engagement at the tournament.



Source: FIFA, "Official Song," FIFA.com, April 8, 2014, <http://www.fifa.com/worldcup/news/y=2014/m=4/news=official-song-released-official-album-tracklist-revealed-2316268.html>, accessed November 2014.



Source: FIFA, "Official Look," FIFA.com, <http://www.fifa.com/marketing/highlights/brazil2014/Marketing-Highlights/The-Brand/Official-Look/index.htm>, accessed November 2014.

communities during the event (*op.cit*). Evidence suggests that FIFA failed to deliver these benefits in Brazil, with Gaffney reporting that the changes implemented to "prepare" Brazil for 2014 have resulted in rampant commercialism and social injustices which have begun to undermine Brazilian football culture (2013b, p.4). Yet this study demonstrates that meeting the needs of diverse groups of attendees, and leveraging mega-tournaments for economic and social benefits, are not mutually exclusive goals. Rather, by reconciling these propositions at both organisational and policy level, FIFA and other organisational bodies can be better placed to meet the challenges of managing sports event tourism in the years ahead. Weed & Bull's vision of the 'sports-tourism link' (2009, p.46) offers practical methodologies for sports and tourism bodies to maximise economic leverage for host destinations and help mega-tournament organisers avoid the sort of public recriminations that plagued Brazil during World Cup 2014.

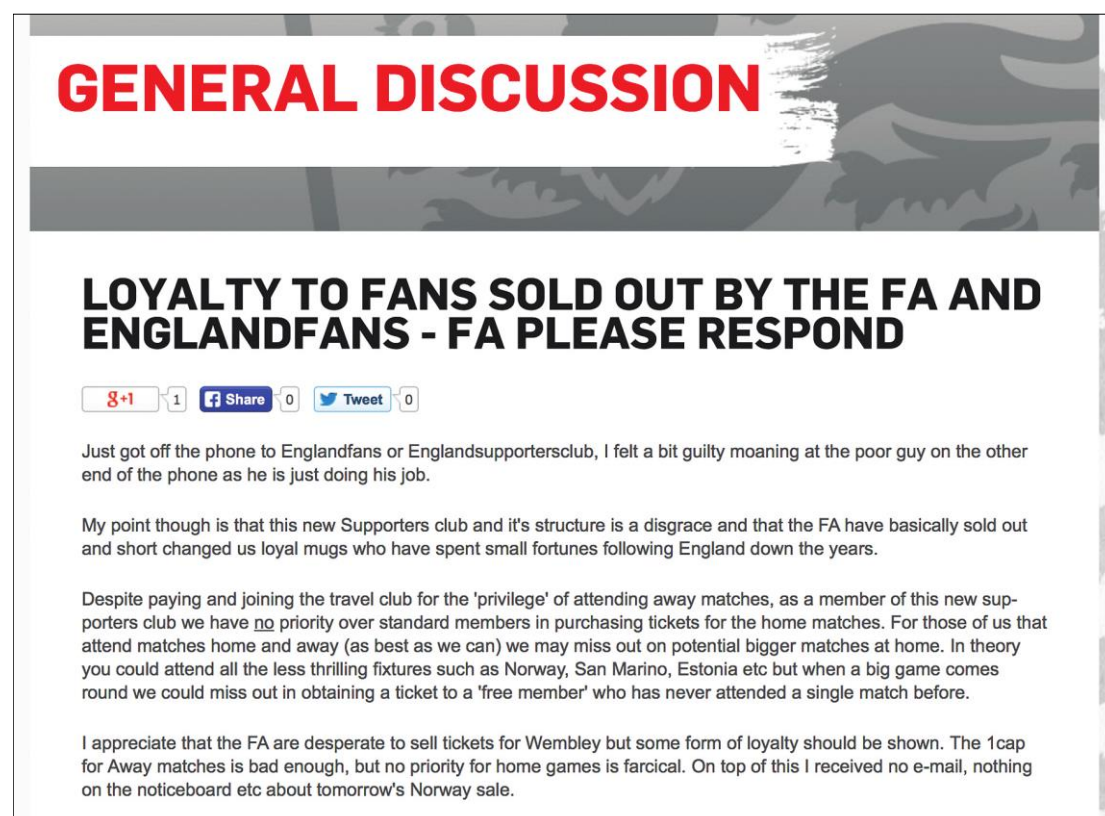
## 6.5. Implications for National Governing Bodies

Ticketing policy and pricing play a fundamental role in determining mega-tournament attendance and in practice, responsibility for ticketing extends to



NGBs such as the FA. Ticket purchasing patterns amongst the four typologies of English Football Tourists reveal that not only did the majority of England Patriots and Enthusiasts purchase their World Cup tickets through the FA's official Supporters Club membership scheme, but that a proportion of Tournament Revellers did too. Crabbe argues that the high profile re-marketing of the England Supporters Club as 'englandfans' in 2001 was a "managerial rather than transformative" exercise (2004, p.66) and it is clear from the ongoing dispute over supporter's loyalty points<sup>67</sup> that the latest incarnation of the scheme has yet to fully reconcile the diversity amongst its members. The FA's decision to scrap the 'loyalty system' that rewards fans travelling to non-tournament 'away' games appears to be a move to attract a more casual class of consumer commensurate to the Tournament Reveller.

**Image 19.** *'Loyal and dependable' England supporters are extremely dissatisfied with the FA's new ticketing strategies.*



Source: Jason Jay, "Loyalty to fans sold out by the FA and englandfans – FA Please Respond," *England Supporters Club: General Discussion* (Forum), July 21, 2014, <https://englandsupporters.thefa.com/fan-forums/f/6/t/489>, accessed July 2014.

Yet results of this study suggest that the FA's strategy is flawed on two counts: on one hand, although Tournament Revellers are found to be

attracted to mega-tournaments there is little evidence that this group – although highly identified – is likely to engage in frequent fandom at Wembley. On the other hand, the FA's 'loyal and dependable' customers – analogous to the England Patriots – are being threatened by a membership strategy that opposes notions of "authenticity" (Crabbe, 2004, p.71). This has, in turn, distilled the community and alienated the regulars (Image 19).

In the same way that domestic football has employed Customer Relationship Management to leverage fan equity (Adamson *et al.*, 2005; Allison, 2013), profiling and segmentation strategies may therefore become the crucial tool for the FA to engage with a more diverse Supporters Club membership. The typologies identified within this study can provide an initiatory segmentation framework. Specifically, they offer the FA a potential strategy to support the existing Supporters Club community, whilst targeting Tournament Revellers with tailored 'experience packages' that appeal to their love of football but also their requirement for a social travel experience (Hu & Ritchie, p.26). Whilst domestically this may focus on attracting Tournament Revellers to Wembley, the possibility of partnering local tour operators to offer, for example, overland adventure tours to and from major tournaments would synergise the broader goal of engaging with a host destination and its tourist industries in a structured and mutually profitable way.

## **7. Conclusions and recommendations**

By providing a snapshot of attendee motivations and demonstrating how sports tourism is “trip behaviour that interacts with, complements and, in some cases, competes with other trip behaviours” (Weed & Bull, 2009, p.40), this study contributes to the understanding of who travels to mega-tournaments and offers insight to event organisers and NGBs for locating, managing and marketing such events. However, several reliability and validity issues should be considered when evaluating this study’s research implications.

### **7.1. Research limitations**

#### ***7.1.1. Reliability and validity issues***

By distributing surveys to attendees in situ, this study makes an assumption about the stability of motivation over time. Whereas Kim & Chalip’s (2004) research sought to evaluate intent to attend, this research allowed for actual behaviours to be measured against affective attitudes. The trade-off for reconciling affective and conative attitudes is that respondents’ on-site experiences may impact on their pre-visitation attitudes (Chen & Funk, 2010) – one such incidence was noted whilst gathering data in Belo Horizonte. Thus, a representative *ex ante* account of motivation is not necessarily provided by this study. On one hand, this highlights the need for further longitudinal and stage-based studies such as that undertaken by Florek *et al.* (2008) and the studies that build on Funk & James’ (2001; 2006) Psychological Continuum Model (Funk & Colleagues, 2007; 2009). On the other hand it reiterates the need to address the constraints demonstrated to lead to non-attendance (Kim & Chalip, 2004; Funk *et al.*, 2008; Kim & Trail, 2010). This study’s structured media review highlighted a number of potential World Cup 2014 constraints including poor event preparedness, crime and public disorder, infrastructure, logistical and cost concerns – these require further investigation at future international events.

Whilst internal reliability was rigorously managed, the survey scale items – drawn primarily from previous studies – were synthesised to form an experimental instrument that was not subject to extensive pre-testing. In turn, this precluded the possibility of running an EFA and led to the poor internal reliability of the eustress and player skills factors and incidences of communality amongst others. Internal reliability may have been improved by employing Q-sort methodology (Gray, 2014) although this method still relies on access to the sample. Ideally, future studies should address these issues by incorporating focus groups or semi-structured interviews into the exploratory sequential design described by Creswell (2014, p.225). Notwithstanding the ontological debates over the suitability of Likert-type scales for measuring ‘reality’ (Burns & Burns, 2012), pre-testing may also have exposed problems with the survey instrument itself: specifically the tendency towards extreme response bias. Response bias tends to be controlled using reverse scoring (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001) and, although studies have reported issues with the internal reliability of reverse coded questions (Heere & James, 2007), results suggest that future studies may benefit from introducing reverse scoring to their sports motivation scales. Secondary considerations are the elimination of unnecessary items to reduce the length of the survey and combat ‘filling in fatigue’ and improving the accuracy of the dichotomous behavioural responses by replacing ‘regularly’ and ‘often’ with unambiguous terms (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.505).

Whilst efforts were made to return an unbiased and representative sample, the relatively small sample size ( $n=122$ ) reduced the overall confidence interval to  $\pm 8.8\%$  and increased the likelihood that a non-response issue – such as a respondent not having their reading glasses – would bias the sample. The reduced sample size also limits the use and power of the multiple regression and clustering analyses (Burns & Burns, 2012), increasing the possibility of a type II error in which significant correlations or further cluster typologies remain undetected. These observations should be considered when generalising the research findings.



### **7.1.2. Generalising the findings**

This research set out to produce findings applicable to the organisation and marketing of future international mega-tournaments. However, it would be a mistake to overgeneralise the results. Intuitively, the sample's wealthy demographic is likely to reflect the high costs of travel meaning results may have more salience to events in distant destinations – for English Football Tourists the World Cups of Russia and Qatar – than for European competitions such as France 2016 where the time and cost of travel are reduced. Given the peculiarities of the English national psyche, retesting is also required to generalise the results to sports tourists from other nations.

Additionally, post-hoc analysis suggests that the proportional representation of each typology in the study may not be accurate. Comparing the ticket purchasing patterns of the four typologies (see Table 30) to the overall number of official FA ticket holders (c5,000) and FIFA ticket holders (c15,000), Social Escapers are likely to be underrepresented as a proportion of the overall number of English Football Tourists at World Cup 2014.

However, when contextualised within a plethora of social, political, economic and cultural conditions (Crabbe, 2008, p.429) – ranging from macro-influences such as global economic forces to transient issues such as the form and playing style of the national team – delineating complex motivational relationships is a continuing problem for sports tourism scholars. For this reason, studies tend to lend their findings to a literary collage that requires continual reinterpretation and reframing to develop its themes. This study has contributed to the collage by furthering an understanding of attendance at international sports events.

### **7.2. Directions for future research**

Notwithstanding the limitations identified in Subsection 7.1, this study's conceptual and theoretical framework can be applied in a range of research environments. To reconcile issues of generalisability, results should be

replicated at other mega-tournaments in different host destinations using different national samples, with each variable adjusted independently to yield comparative results. Although the FIFA World Cup's four-year organisational cycle hinders longitudinal research, retesting the sample at UEFA Euro 2016 may reveal different correlatory patterns and new or altered cluster typologies amongst English Football Tourists, whilst broadening the sampling frame to make cross-cultural comparisons may highlight idiosyncrasies within the English sample. Meanwhile, international and cross-sporting comparisons could be extended by applying the model to upcoming mega-tournaments including the AFC Asian Cup in Australia, Copa América in Chile and the 2015 RFU Rugby World Cup in England. These events all have the potential to yield data to build on the present study and identify new patterns of segmentation – providing practical assistance to future organisers and host destinations and informing the 'edifices of knowledge' required to advance the sports tourism discipline.

## Endnotes

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45. The search tags used were "Bra\*il" and "World Cup 2014". Although the tournament is officially titled 'FIFA World Cup 2014', it was noted that the BBC generally omitted the word 'FIFA' from their articles. Boolean Logic was employed for the word Bra\*il, as a 'wildcard' to cover both 'z' and 's' variants of the spelling.

46. Articles in which Brazil was not the core topic or which were an update of a previous news article were omitted.
47. Articles that focused on the performances of the England team, its players or manager; another country's team, player or manager; addressed a different World Cup event; or mentioned Brazil or the Brazilian Team only by name were omitted.
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51. When necessary two screening questions were asked to confirm survey eligibility: "are you English?" and "are you here for the World Cup?"
52. Eight Missing at Random (MAR) scale data responses were deemed 'ignorable' (Allison, 2002) and their values recalculated using the EM (expectation-maximisation) imputation method (*ibid.*). Multiple missing responses to Question 5 ( $n=11$ ), comprising >5% of the total, were subject to independent t-tests to determine if the response and non-response cases differed on other factors (*ibid.*). Results were non-significant. It was concluded that flaws in the survey wording were the probable cause. The question was struck from the data set.
53. Winsorisation is the process of reducing the extremity of outliers in order to preserve the case information and is deemed preferable to 'trimming' when the sample size is small (Reifman & Keyton, 2010, p.1637). Modified Winsorisation transforms single data points to the value of their nearest neighbour.
54. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is not supported in SPSS, therefore Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was used as the de facto CFA tool.
55. Although it has been argued that application of Cronbach's Pearson Correlation Matrix to Likert-type responses may lead to "substantively deflated reliability estimates" and that an 'ordinal alpha' coefficient such as the polychoric correlation matrix produces more accurate results (Gadermann *et al.*, 2012, p.1), the latter is not supported in SPSS and not used by the majority of sports motivation studies.
56. Nunnally & Bernstein's .70 reliability cut-off criterion has widely been misinterpreted as applicable to all measurement treatments where in fact, for applied settings a minimum reliability of .80 was recommended (p.264–265). However, the experimental nature of this scale instrument and the small number

of items per scale – improving inter-item correlation – allow the .70 rule-of-thumb to be deemed an acceptable cut-off (Cortina, 1993).

57. Factors were manipulated using negative square root / log transformation. Although Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests failed to indicate normal distribution for the transformed data, revised skewness and kurtosis ratios fell within the 2.58 cut-off (Burns & Burns, 2012, p.172) and the revised data was therefore deemed to approximate normality.
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61. Formann proposes that the minimum number of cases should be at least  $2x$ , where  $x$  is the number of clustering variables.
62. Box's M tests the null hypothesis that covariance between groups does not differ. Therefore a successful test should reject the null hypothesis.
63. Calculated using the Proportional Chance Criterion equation:  $C_{pro} = (.156^2 + .344^2 + .213^2 + .287^2)$  plus a 25% minimum threshold.
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